



IRON.—I.

ROYAL ACADEMY LECTURES, 1903.—I.

By Professor AITCHISON, R.A.

PAST PRESIDENT, ROYAL GOLD MEDALLIST.

THAT witty ambassador, Sir Henry Wotton, who said that an ambassador was “a good man sent to lie abroad for the good of his country,” wrote a treatise on architecture and gave us that now hackneyed proverb that “architecture needs no commendation where there are noble men or noble minds.” He was born in 1568, four years after Michelangelo died, when all the civilised world was looking forward to the completion of St. Peter’s, when Michelangelo had more or less completed what Bramante proposed—*i.e.* “raised the Pantheon on the vault of the Basilica of Maxentius”; and though we have no such problem now, if we had the wit, we certainly have the material for making something to which “Diana’s marvel” would be “a cell.”

Before entering on the main subject of my lectures, I should like to say something on architecture without reference to the new materials that we have, and beg of the students to consider what fine architecture does for a country. It gives a stamp to its greatness and glory that nothing else can give, and it shows too that the country is capable of giving birth to genius, and to other high intellectual qualities. If its public buildings are sublime or majestic, that at least shows the skill of those who have worthily carried out the designs of the architect, and the completed building raises those high emotions that are important for everyone to feel. Architecture embodies the cultivation of the people who are contemporary with its building, and is a source of instruction and delight to every person who sees it so long as it lasts; and even its ruins may act like a ferment and leaven a nation which is ready to receive it: so that I hope those who think of following its study may have felt that divine impulse which arises in those who are destined to make discoveries or wondrous improvements, and will strive to the utmost of their powers to rival or surpass former excellence. Let each architect follow Horace’s maxim,

Vos exemplaria Græca
Nocturna versate manu, versate diurna.

HORACE, *Arts Poetica*, lines 268, 269.

Do you, my friends, from Greece your models draw,
And day and night to con them be your law.

Sir Theodore Martin’s Translation.

Think of Tennyson studying Hebrew when middle-aged in the hopes of attaining the sublimity of Holy Writ. Think what my early contemporaries have done for England; think of Soane, Wilkins, Cockerell, Barry, and Elmes; think too of what Charles Garnier has done for France in designing the Paris Opera House, which is majestic, original, and purely French.



FIG. 1.—THE PARIS OPERA HOUSE.

I will also appeal to those of my hearers who are studying architecture, not to practise it as a trade, but purely as a delight, and to say that one of the great spurs to the exercise of our noble art is the emotions it excites and the hold it takes on the multitude.

What has made us have such a succession of fine poets but the love of poetry among the people, and their admiration for that which best fits the highest aspiration of age? Not long ago I read of the mate of a small merchant vessel who astonished and delighted a literary man travelling in the ship by his knowledge of and admiration for

Tennyson. That story of Dante throwing the blacksmith's tools out of doors, because he was singing some of the "Divine Comedy" with wrong words, shows that the very craftsmen admired it enough to learn it. Would any sane man expect music to flourish if the bulk of the people would as soon hear a tin kettle at a dog's tail as the finest piece that the best composer can invent?

The very ruins of fine architecture give us delight. Who has not been struck by the ruins of the Parthenon, of the Erechtheum, and of the Monument of Lysikrates? Renaissance architecture was mainly brought about by the Florentine admiration for the ruins of Rome; the revival of sculpture dates from Niccola Pisano's admiration for a Roman sarcophagus.

We all want to struggle against the degrading of the English character by "the accursed greed of gold," which destroyed Rome, and will destroy us if we cannot stem it. We shall shortly deserve the united sarcasms of Junius: "He recollected that he had a fortune to make, but forgot he had a reputation to lose, and retired to his country house infamous and contented."

Unfortunately we cannot claim that praise that was given by Pericles to the Athenians. "We love the beautiful," but as we do not as a nation, it is all the more necessary that we should avail ourselves of men who can design beautiful and original buildings to keep, with the other artists, the very thought of beauty alive. We see every day the steam engine superseding men and animals where strength or rapidity is wanted: this is so much the case that we may expect shortly to see a steam sparrow to pick up the crumbs, with as little beauty of form as a motor-car, and perhaps as repulsive in other respects.

Nature has created so many things of beauty for the solace and delight of man that it is most unfortunate we should have arrived at such a degraded state that we are insensible to this beneficence. It is most important that by the aid of gifted men we are enabled to confer beauty or sublimity on the buildings that surround us. We can hardly fancy a time

when buildings will not be required for man's habitation, for storing his goods, for instruction, and for State, town, and charitable purposes; but if we allow that accursed greed of gold which ruined Rome to banish every desire for beauty, I am afraid we shall sink lower in the scale than the beasts that perish.

The thing that now seems mostly to mark our art is the capability of copying works that have been done before, sometimes with slight variations; but no new form of beauty seems to present itself to the architect, nor to those who design the furniture and fittings for our buildings.

In my last course of lectures I told you that I did not believe that the inventive part of architecture could be taught, and I still think so; but that is all the more reason why we should endeavour to find those people who are blessed with this divine gift of invention; and when I say invention I mean invention in the forms of beauty, dignity, or sublimity, so I have drawn your attention first to the new materials that are banishing all others, and are, if I may say so, crying out to be included in the fine arts, from which hitherto they have been practically excluded.

I treat of *iron* to-night because it is of the first importance for you, the architects of the future, to consider this comparatively new material. We are in the middle of the second iron age: the first iron age, which was really a steel one, was when iron was first used for weapons and armour, and those who had the best weapons conquered those who had only weapons of wood, stone, or bronze. If the first discoverers of iron were able to conquer the then known world by its means, the second great discoverers, the English, have through its aid been able to make more peaceful conquests by means of the steam engine, the railway, and the iron steamboat, and thus to endow mankind with powers only dreamed of by the poets.

Iron in one of its three forms—cast iron, wrought iron, and steel—is now one of the most important building materials we have; but as yet it has hardly been brought into architectural use. I do not recollect ever seeing a cast-iron column, bressummer, or girder that had the absolute perfection of beauty. The great architects of the thirteenth century found brick, stone, and wood used much as they had been by the Romans and Byzantines, and both were great constructors; and though the Romans had not the unerring artistic instincts of the Greeks, they had a capacity for producing splendid and magnificent effects. Architects at least owe them undying gratitude for the great Pantheon, which has not only the greatest masonry dome ever built, but is also absolutely unrivalled as an effective interior. At first it looks like the hot chamber of Agrippa's baths, but it is not, though I think it has been suggested by a Laconicum. Nothing shows the genius of a man more than his seeing some effect and reproducing it on a

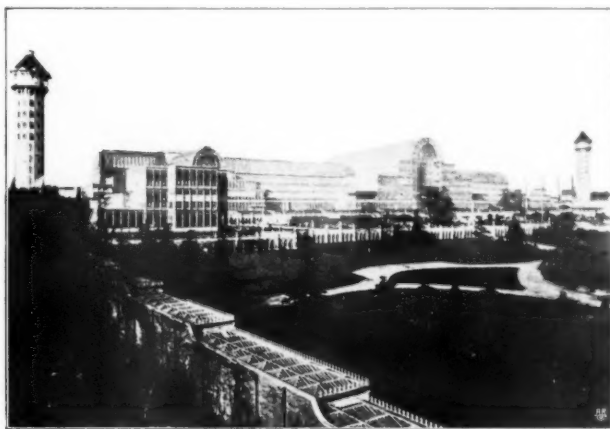


FIG. 2.—THE CRYSTAL PALACE.

grander scale for a more important building, like this dedicated to all the gods. In considering Roman building we must recollect that the Romans had the tribute of a great part of the then known world for their income, armies of slaves for their work, splendid roads and cattle; and though it was then the fashion for writers to deride architecture and architects as some do now—most of you know Martial's epigram:

If of dull parts the stripling you suspect
Make him a herald or an architect—

architecture appears to have then been a lucrative profession, though now it will hardly grow "the grain by which a man may live." We read in Plutarch that Crassus bought Greek slaves and had them brought up as architects and let them out for hire, by which he secured considerable profit. We know how able the Roman architects were, and how the imperial temper of

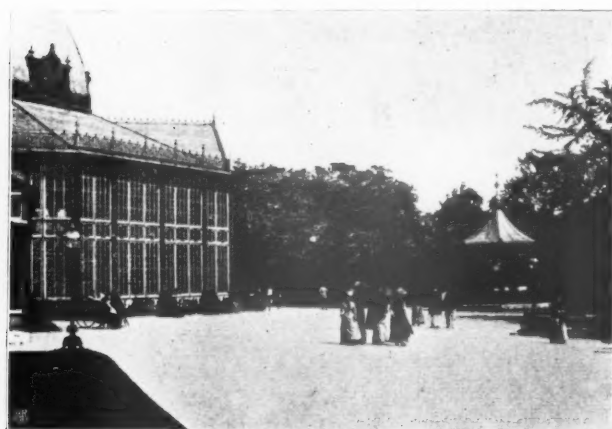


FIG. 3.—BUNTON PAVILION.

Rome pervaded all classes and made them build for eternity. No expense was spared on foundations, and daring feats of construction were not cramped by expense, though like judicious people the Romans spared expense when they could. It is to be remembered, however, that in all their constructive flights thrust was only counteracted by mass.

The architects of the thirteenth century, the greatest inventors the world has yet seen, had neither the Roman wealth nor the Roman advantages, but the slender resources of abns, the revenues of a bishop, a prince, or a king, and for unskilled labour the serfs of the neighbourhood, but in the case of the king's work skilled workmen were "pressed." The mediæval architects had to trust to their own skill and ingenuity to construct buildings rivalling those of the Romans in extent and sublimity, and absolutely original in form, detail, and ornament. To effect this they revolutionised construction, vaults were no longer made of uniform masses of concrete of great thickness, though in fact late Roman vaults had brick ribs which were dubbed out to make the arrises of the groin points, while in Gothic these groin points were turned into ribs, and the filling in was of extreme thinness where no weight was to be carried; and as thrust could not generally be counteracted by mass it was carried to the ground by means of flying buttresses and pinnacles, and the wide spread base of the last buttress. From the thrust of each bay of vaulting being concentrated in one place the late mediæval architects were able to dispense with almost all their wall space, which was filled with windows. As they were always short of materials they learned the utmost power of resistance in the materials they used, so that in certain cases we are rather reminded of iron than of stone work.

In their carpentry, too, the heavy tie-beam was done away with, and each slender rafter was formed into its own truss. Can we suppose that if such materials as iron and steel had been in their hands as they are in ours, they would not have rivalled our engineers in constructive skill, and at the same time given new forms of beauty to their buildings and enriched them with mouldings and ornament suitable to the material?

It has been too much the fashion with architects to decry our engineers, the true children of the age, whose sole aim is utility; yet looking at their works from the constructive side, what could be more admirable? They have carried their constructive skill in iron to a pitch that even the thirteenth-century architects might envy. No man can walk down the vast nave of the Crystal Palace and see its slight construction and the flood of light it admits without thankfulness and admiration; and if any regret mingles with his emotion it is that the building's tenure of existence is almost as frail as the spider's web it rivals, only it by no means equals the spider's web in beauty, nor does ruined ironwork rival the "silvery gossamers that twinkle into green and gold."

In the present day architecture has fallen upon evil times; it is the voice of one crying in the wilderness, or to a deaf generation, whose deafness is its least infirmity; for if this generation did hear it does not ask for beauty nor want it, and we can do little more than hand down the traditions of architecture unimpaired for the use of succeeding generations. Still no one, and least of all no architect, should shut his eyes to the signs that by slow degrees this insensibility seems likely to pass away, for a faint interest is perhaps being awakened for beauty in buildings.

The position of architecture is not wholly due to outside influences; it is partly due to former architects retiring from the actual strife of the world. Architects a few generations ago were inclined to pose as gentlemen and not as bricklayers; construction was considered as beneath their notice; they only attended to the æsthetic part, so that architecture had come to be looked upon as a sort of potted art, a delicacy for the fastidious, not honest bread and meat for the multitude. Stuart and Revett drew all the Greek temples without any joints in the stone, as if they were cut out of solid rock. W. Burges declined to buy a book of Wren's churches because no jointing of the stones was shown, saying "that at present he could not afford books for the drawing-room table." We must free ourselves from this nonsense; we must strive to be great constructors and do what we can to impart character to our buildings, even if the bestowing upon them the attribute of exquisite beauty is denied us; and without simplicity nothing great can be achieved.

A French writer makes some good remarks on certain views of art. He says:—"Those people, too, are admirable who put art into a sweetmeat box; their grand formula is that art has nothing to do with science, that art and manufacture kill poetry. These imbeciles weep over flowers, as if anyone dreamt of behaving ill to flowers."

It is quite refreshing to find a modern writer mentioning present architecture except to

abuse it. Notices of architecture by novelists used to be limited to Greek; then there was admiration for Gothic—the description of Mr. Allworthy's house in *Tom Jones* points to this: "The Gothic style of building could produce nothing nobler than Mr. Allworthy's house."



FIG. 4.—BUXTON PAVILION.

There was an air of grandeur in it that struck you with awe and rivalled the beauties of the best Grecian architecture, and it was as commodious within as venerable without." (*Tom Jones*, by Henry Fielding, London, 1749.)

Then we had a modified admiration of Elizabethan hodge-podge, and now we have got down to Queen Anne and lower; but these admirations are all tinged with a love for old things. No one seems to have any admiration for architecture itself, no emotion is caused by the elegance, proportion, or sublimity of buildings of the present day. Neither vastness nor floods of light nor depths of shadow nor beautiful colour nor elegant ornament affect them. The people of to-day are emotionless; they are as little affected by the daring construction of the engineers as by the beauty and sublimity of architecture. How many thousands of people who have travelled to Scotland by the night mail have seen the bridge of Berwick-on-Tweed by moonlight? And yet I never saw its beauty once mentioned in print. At the distance of the railway and by moonlight it is almost perfect—I think it is an example of how the true sometimes by accident coincides with the beautiful. Yet it is the casual mention by a great writer or a poet of something that has struck him as beautiful or picturesque that is so valuable as an evidence of the observation of architecture and the emotions it excites, as in Sir Walter Scott's description of Melrose Abbey.

We must now consider the materials with which we have to deal. Cast iron, wrought iron, and steel, these are perfect materials, for, with the exception of the glazing, the whole structure may be made of each one of them. But one material rather than another may be more proper and more economical. Let us take cast iron first and deal with its capabilities, its peculiarities, and its defects. It can be cast into almost any form we please and enriched with almost any ornament that is not undercut; we may have columns of almost any variety of section, and each of their parts may be either plain or ornamental. Cast iron is very strong in compression as compared with other materials, and consequently takes up little space; so it lends itself peculiarly to what we may call the bony structure of a building. Its defects are that it rapidly transmits heat, so that in damp weather horizontal pieces drip and vertical pieces stream with water; it melts in great heat, and if heated to redness and rapidly cooled by cold water it cracks or breaks. Its contraction and expansion under variations of temperature are considerable, and the contraction or expansion is sometimes dangerous, and it rapidly rusts. Iron is difficult to cast in very long pieces; it is so hard that ornament cannot well be chased after casting. Its peculiarities are that it is very heavy, that it is roughly six times as strong in compression as in tension, and unless its parts are of nearly uniform thickness the casting tears on cooling, so that in the case of girders where the lower flange must contain six times the amount of iron that the upper one does, it is not easy to arrange the parts so that they do not tear in cooling. Everything has to be arranged beforehand, even to a bolt-hole, for the expense of drilling is considerable. Accurate patterns in wood, plaster, or metal have to be made for each piece; consequently there is a strong desire to save the cost of patterns, and due allowance must be made for shrinkage in cooling.

Wrought Iron was in my young days made by remelting cast-iron pigs, pouring the fluid iron out on to a level bed and pouring cold water on it, breaking it up with sledge hammers and putting the pieces so broken into a puddling furnace; that part of the iron which did not melt was collected into a ball on the puddlers' bar and put under the tilt hammer and then drawn into rods, bars, or T, L, or H, iron.

Steel is defined as thus differing from malleable iron, that when heated red hot and suddenly cooled it becomes hardened, and more or less brittle and elastic: of it are made weapons, tools, and springs, and the processes applied are called *hardening* or *tempering*.

Some of the capabilities of wrought iron are smaller than those of cast iron, but its tensile strength is much greater. The tensile strength of wrought iron is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ times as great as cast, and in steel five or six times as great; both wrought iron and steel can be rolled into very thin plates, and these plates can be riveted together so as to be of any length. The defects of wrought iron and steel are in many respects much the same as those of cast iron, except that they rust more readily, and though they will not melt under the influence of great heat they crumple up like a sheet of wet paper, and it is very difficult to impress any ornament upon them, whether raised or sunk, except at great cost; but they can, at a comparatively reasonable expense, be pierced. The peculiarities of wrought iron and steel are that they can be built up, that is, riveted together into the required forms, from plates, tubes, bars, from L, T, H, and U pieces.

When marble, stone, or wood is used in cross strain it is generally more convenient and less costly to use them in their native square or oblong sections, but this is not the case with iron. It is both a heavy and a costly material, and we neither want to load the building with useless weight nor to throw away money on useless material.

The form of equal strength in cross strain for a uniform load is parabolic, but if the top of a bressummer is to be level then the flange takes a double parabolic shape on plan.

You remember that cast iron is six times stronger in compression than in tension, and that large variation in thickness is apt to cause breaking as the molten metal cools, and we can rarely core the lower flange of a girder.

Hence there is ample scope for your ingenuity in trying to make a girder slightly. In columns every considerable swelling out or projection, as for capitals, bases, or the lower parts of shafts, is a source of weakness and danger, instead of being an additional strength. All incised work is an element of weakness. I have often seen the brackets supporting heavily loaded capitals break when the founder has put his name or initial in sunk letters, and if very high relief is wanted in capitals cast on to columns their ornaments generally have to be screwed on.

I make no apology for treating of the natural qualities of the materials, for without knowing these it is impossible for you to design with either safety or propriety. Architects are before everything constructors; architects without any constructive knowledge are even worse than sculptors without anatomy; for defects of anatomy in sculpture if we are anatomists only make us shrug our shoulders and laugh, while the ignorance of the architect may ruin us. Want of a thorough knowledge of the properties of iron and of the abstruse statical problems connected with its use has made it so little used by architects, for two minds cannot act like one, and the scientific mind of the engineer with no art and the artistic mind of the architect with no science are apt when working together to be like two horses pulling in opposite directions.

You must observe that the use of iron has restored the post and lintel construction, which

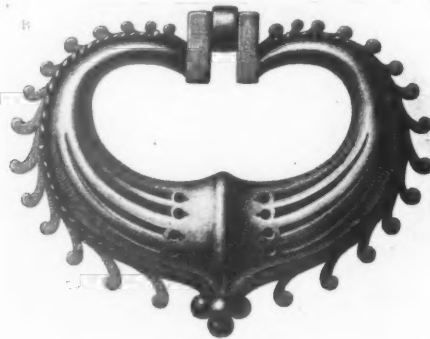


FIG. 5.—SOUTHWARK BRIDGE.

had been swept away by the arches, domes, and vaults of Roman, Byzantine, and Mediaeval times. It is not that arches or domes cannot be made, but where there is no abutment the ribs must either be girders without thrust or be trussed or tied.

From the great strength of cast iron in compression, the proportion of voids to solids is so great, that it is unpleasant, to the eye accustomed to the large supports that are required in brick, stone, or marble, and also to the small spaces that can be bridged by these materials in the form of lintels. In proportioning the parts of columns our module must be very different from the half diameter of the bottom of the shaft, for cast iron columns are not from six to eight diameters in height, but from twenty-five to thirty or even more. If we must go to old-world ornament we must study from the bronze tripods and candelabra of the Greeks or Romans, and from those fantastic structures found in the arabesque paintings of Rome and Pompeii which so excited the indignation of Vitruvius. Iron, however, is absolutely untrammelled by any former scheme of design or ornament except for arms or armour, so that you may be as original as you like without contravening any established law; but as the faculty of invention is the last thing to be met with in the present day, instead of it being an advantage to be untrammelled, it is a great hindrance to those whose only skill is in making slight divergences from the things that have already been done.

It might have been an advantage to the late Saracens and early Mediaevals, who seem to have been replete with original invention; but this is by no means a characteristic of the present day; in fact I heard a very clever architect say that if original invention was wanted you would have to wait till there was another irruption of barbarians. It is no use lamenting that the bulk of the present races of civilised man are not endowed with certain qualities, when we have no means of creating these qualities; the utmost we can do is to give those who have these qualities an opportunity for exercising them, and to beg of them to strive to give us beautiful and appropriate forms for ironwork.





THE ROYAL GOLD MEDAL.

Presentation to Mr. CHARLES FOLLEN MCKIM, of New York, 22nd June 1903.

ADDRESS BY MR. ASTON WEBB, R.A., PRESIDENT.

YOUR EXCELLENCY, LADIES, AND GENTLEMEN,—

AS you all know, we are met together to-night to present the Royal Gold Medal for the promotion of architecture, annually given by His Majesty the King to "some distinguished architect or man of science or letters who has designed or executed a building of high merit, or produced a work tending to promote or facilitate the knowledge of architecture or the various branches of science connected therewith."

The mode of selection is that a name is brought forward by the Council and submitted to the general body of members of this Institute, after which it is submitted to the King for his gracious approval.

Amongst those to whom the Medal has been awarded, and who are now no longer amongst us, are Professor Cockerell, the first recipient in 1848; Sir Charles Barry; Owen Jones; Sir Gilbert Scott; Viollet-le-Duc; Sir James Pennethorne; George Edmund Street; John Pearson; Baron von Ferstel; F. C. Penrose; H. Schliemann; Charles Garnier; Baron von Hansen; R. M. Hunt; Lord Leighton.

In selecting a recipient for this honour it has almost become an unwritten rule to select in rotation an English architect, a foreign architect, and a literary man with architectural instincts. This year we have somewhat departed from this rule, and, as you know, our Institute has selected Mr. Charles Follen McKim, of New York, and Mr. McKim has returned us the compliment by crossing the Atlantic especially to receive the Medal in person to-night; and here he is, I am glad to say, safe and sound with us this evening, and very heartily we all welcome him.

I have said that in selecting Mr. McKim we have somewhat departed from our rule, for we cannot claim him as an English architect, we have not selected him for his literary attainments, and least of all can we consider him as a *foreign* architect. No, we have selected him as a highly distinguished American architect, a very near relation of ours, and a representative man, in order that we may show to him personally and to the whole world of American artists our high appreciation and admiration of the great work that marvellous country is doing on the other side of the world: an appreciation not only of what they are doing, but also of what we expect them to do untrammelled by traditions, full of youth, energy, imagination and initiative, and supported by almost boundless resources; and we are confident that as time goes on they will not only develop fresh types and plans of buildings,

but that they will, though still mindful of the past, clothe those buildings in a language that will be distinctly their own.

As I have already said, this selection has met with the full approval of His Majesty the King; and I venture to hope the presence here to-night of the Ambassador himself from the American people to our Court may be taken as setting the American seal on this selection of ours.

And now I must introduce you to Mr. McKim a little more in detail, in order that not only those present, but also those who read these proceedings, may fully understand our choice. I may say my facts may be depended upon, for I have received them from the best authority—Mr. McKim himself.

He was born in Chester Co., Pennsylvania, five-and-fifty years ago, and at eighteen entered Harvard University with a view to becoming a mining engineer. A year later, finding the work uncongenial, he entered the office of Mr. Russell Sturgis, architect, of New York, and, in the autumn of the same year, the Atelier Daumet in Paris, where he was prepared for, and admitted to, the École des Beaux Arts, remaining till the outbreak of the war some three years later. During this time Mr. McKim also travelled in Europe, and visited England in 1869, where, he tells me, through the kindness of Mr. Phené Spiers, Mr. Florence, and others, he was able to make profitable use of his time, as far as cricket matches would permit. He also was made an Honorary Member of the Architectural Association.

Returning to New York in 1870, Mr. McKim entered the office of the well-known architect H. H. Richardson; and in 1872, at the age of twenty-five, commenced practice on his own account, being joined in 1877 by Mr. Wm. Rutherford Mead, and in 1879 by Mr. Stanford White, and since that time they have continued their practice as "McKim, Mead, and White."

Many commissions followed, and a list of the buildings will appear in the JOURNAL.*

* The following is a complete list:—

1879-1893.

Casino at Newport, Rhode Island.
House of Louis C. Tiffany, Esq., New York.
Houses of Henry Villard, Esq., New York.
The Judge Building, New York.
The Imperial Hotel, New York.
House of the Hon. John A. Andrew, Boston, Massachusetts.
The Algonquin Club, Boston, Massachusetts.
The Public Library, Boston, Massachusetts.
Country House of Mrs. William Edgar, Newport, Rhode Island.
The Freundschaft Club, New York.
The New York Life Insurance Company's Buildings at Kansas City, Missouri, Omaha, Nebraska, and New York.
Country House of C. J. Osborn, Esq., Mamaroneck, New York.
Country House of Colonel Elliott F. Shepard, Scarborough, New York.
St. Peter's Church, Morristown, New Jersey.
House of General Charles A. Whittier, Boston, Massachusetts.
House of F. I. Amory, Esq., Boston, Massachusetts.
House of the Hon. Richard Olney, Boston, Massachusetts.
Deutscher Verein, New York.
First Methodist Episcopal Church, Baltimore, Maryland.
Judson Memorial Church, New York.
Country Houses of E. D. Morgan, Esq., at Newport, Rhode Island, and Wheatly Hills, Long Island.
House of the Hon. J. Hampden Robb, New York.
Power House and Office Building of the Broadway Cable Railway, New York.
The Bowers Savings Bank, New York.

The Century Club, New York.
The Power House of the Niagara Cataract Company, Niagara Falls, New York.
The Germantown Cricket Club, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
The Metropolitan Club, New York.
Country House of H. McK. Twombly, Esq., Madison, New Jersey.
Office Building of Messrs. Cornelius and W. K. Vanderbilt, New York.
The Washington Memorial Arch, New York.
The West Point Battle Monument, West Point, New York.
The Walker Memorial Library, Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Maine.
The Public Library, Naugatuck, Connecticut.

1893-1903.

The Agricultural Building and New York State Building at the World's Columbian Exposition, Chicago, Illinois.
Building of the *New York Herald*, New York.
Museum Building of the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, Brooklyn, New York.
The Columbia University, New York.
The University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Virginia.
The University of the City of New York, New York.
Radcliffe College, Harvard University, Boston, Massachusetts.
Building of the Medical Department of Cornell University, New York.
Building of the Architectural Department, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
The Harvard Union, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
Campus Fence and Gates, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
The Harvard Club, New York.

In 1887 Messrs. McKim, Mead, and White were appointed architects to the new public library of the City of Boston, now a famous building. In 1889 two Fellowships in the School of Architecture, Columbia University, known as the McKim Fellowships, were established. In 1891 Mr. McKim was made a member of Commission of ten architects from throughout the United States to design the World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago. In 1894 his firm were appointed architects to the new Capitol building of the State of Rhode Island. In 1897 the American Academy of Architecture in Rome was incorporated under the laws of the State of New York, and Mr. McKim was made President. In 1899 he was elected a member of the Academy of San Luca, and in the same year was appointed to serve as a member of the first Municipal Art Commission of the City of New York.

In 1901 Mr. McKim was appointed a member of the Park Commission for the improvement of the park system of the District of Columbia, and assisted in drawing up the magnificent scheme, photographs of which are exhibited here to-night. Here is to be an avenue 1,600 feet wide and a mile and a half long, architecturally treated at various points, with great public buildings incorporated in the scheme. The cost is put at some three to four millions, some half of which has already been voted. A Bill has also passed Congress for locating the memorial.

Mr. McKim was elected President of the American Institute of Architects in 1901, and re-elected in 1902, and in the same year was appointed by President Roosevelt to restore the White House, and also as architect for the new Army War College.

Of the buildings erected some idea may be gained from the splendid series of photographs and drawings Mr. McKim has kindly shown us here to-night. He seems equally at home with a palace or a bungalow, with a university or a railway station, with laying out a great park scheme or arranging a charming little formal garden. In all I think you will find true artistic feeling, nobility of plan, breadth of treatment, absence of unnecessary or meretricious ornament, and a suitability of purpose. The style, based largely on Italian examples, shows the influence of French training, and while founded on traditional lines appears to me to possess just that amount of individuality required, without which the best work must be dull and uninteresting.

Then, again, Mr. McKim has set all us architects an example by the opportunities he has given to painters and sculptors to further adorn his works. The decorations of the Boston

The University Club, New York.

The Capitol of the State of Rhode Island, Providence, Rhode Island.

Symphony Hall, Boston, Massachusetts.

The Cullom Memorial Building, West Point, New York.

The Public Library, Orange, New Jersey.

The First Congregational Church, Naugatuck, Connecticut.

The Detroit Savings Bank, Detroit, Michigan.

The Carnegie Branch Libraries, New York.

House of George A. Nickerson, Esq., Boston, Massachusetts.

Country House of Herman Oelrichs, Esq., Newport, Rhode Island.

House of Thomas Nelson Page, Esq., Washington, D.C.

Country House of Frederick W. Vanderbilt, Esq., Hyde Park, New York.

Country House of Odgen Mills, Esq., Staatsburg, New York.

House of the Honourable Levi P. Morton, New York.

House of Joseph Pulitzer, Esq., New York.

House of R. W. Patterson, Esq., Washington, D.C.

Country House of Clarence H. Mackay, Esq., Roslyn, Long Island.

Country House of the Honourable William C. Whitney, Roslyn, Long Island.

Town House of the Honourable William C. Whitney, New York.

The White House (Executive Mansion), Washington, D.C.—Restoration.

NOW IN COURSE OF CONSTRUCTION.

The Bank of Montreal, Montreal, Province of Quebec, Canada.

The New York Terminal Station, Pennsylvania Railroad.

Library Building for J. Pierpont Morgan, Esq., New York.

The Army War College and Engineers School, and Washington Barracks, Washington, D.C.

The New Bellevue Hospital, New York.

Building for the Gorham Company, Silversmiths, New York.

Building for Tiffany & Company, Jewellers, New York.

Building for The Knickerbocker Trust Company, New York.

Officers' Mess Hall and Quarters, West Point, New York.

The Harmonie Club, New York.

House for James Stillman, Esq., New York.

House for L. C. Hanna, Esq., Cleveland, Ohio.

House for T. B. Wanamaker, Esq., Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Library by Mr. E. A. Abbey, who I am glad to say is here to-night, and by Mr. Sargent, who would have liked to have been here but is still abroad, is a case in point, and are well illustrated by the photographs here.

And now, Mr. McKim, it only remains for me to present you with this Medal as an English token of our admiration and esteem of yourself and your colleagues. May you long live to adorn your country still further with your works!

MR. MCKIM'S RESPONSE.

MR. PRESIDENT, YOUR EXCELLENCY, LADIES, AND GENTLEMEN,—

I AM no speaker, and if I were it would be quite beyond me adequately to express to you my appreciation and deep sense of obligation to His Gracious Majesty King Edward and to the members of this Royal Institute of British Architects.

The broad philanthropy which created this Medal, not alone for British subjects, but that it might help and encourage the successful development of the art of Architecture in other countries, was characteristic of the most gracious Queen whose memory we, next to you, hold in veneration. That it should have a second time within a single decade come to our shores is indeed cause for felicitation, since it attests, in lasting form, the progress and achievement your eminent body has been pleased to recognise in the work of your younger colleagues in America.

The Medal which you do me the high honour to bestow on me, is pure at least in virtue of my accidental Presidency of the American Institute, but is, I feel, to be regarded in a far larger sense than as a personal recognition of the ties which unite the builder's art on both sides of the Atlantic. As a spur and incentive, and as a token of the friendship and respect that for many years have been growing up between our two bodies, I accept with grateful pride this Medal, tendered as to my countrymen by the Royal Institute. I accept it for the whole profession in the United States, and I accept it for my associates of twenty-five years to whom I owe everything.

As the bearer of many messages from across the seas, I cannot let such an occasion as this pass by without at least briefly adverting to the ties which have united us in the past, and which must render the development of our future of something more than passing interest to you. I will add also a word concerning recent events on our side of the water.

The early buildings of the New England coast, dating back to the eighteenth century, and more rarely to the seventeenth, from the once vice-regal town of Portsmouth, to Charleston, S.C., have happily descended to us despite political revolutions. Notwithstanding their simpler forms, both of construction and design, made necessary by slender means and the circumstances of transplantation, they still reflect the mother country in their excellence of construction as well as in sound and correct taste. Precisely the most interesting, and in their sphere the most admirable, architectural monuments of my native land, private dwellings and public buildings alike, are those that most strongly recall their English prototypes.

Our obligations, for instance, to Sir Christopher Wren are very imperfectly understood even at home, yet the cities of the Atlantic seaboard, especially in New England, abound in examples showing the influence of his school. The struggle of these landmarks for existence in the advancing tide of commercial prosperity, before which they are gradually being swept away, is a melancholy daily spectacle—not alone deplorable in the loss of historic monuments, but for the lessons they invariably teach of sound proportion, simplicity, and good manners.

Happily some of the best examples remain to us. At the seat of Government, for instance, our Capitol, and the home of the President, the White House, are both singularly animated by a pure taste and devoted love of beauty, not to mention the City Hall and the old Department buildings of the city of Washington. Of these, for our information at home, as well as yours, let us gratefully acknowledge that the Capitol, though enlarged and changed since, was originally designed by one William Thornton, the White House by a certain James Hoban, while the City Hall and old Department buildings were the creation of a man of the name of Hadfield—all *Englishmen*!

I can well remember the thrill of surprise and pleasure which I experienced on my first visit to England, more than thirty years ago, in the discovery of a strange familiarity in the appearance of things, and in the sense of not being after all so far from home. Though I did not understand it then, the reason, as has been shown, was not far to seek!

I will venture to refer to one more building, of the era which we call early and you ingloriously late, albeit of the period of Adam—the Octagon.

Our Institute, which has urged upon Governments—national, state, and municipal—the duty of preserving Historic Monuments, has itself recently secured possession of one of the historic houses of America, known from its shape as the “Octagon,” and designed by the same William Thornton, architect of the Capitol. Here in the early days was dispensed a liberal hospitality by President Madison, whose home it was. Under its roof, too, the Treaty of Ghent was signed. The house was finished in a manner befitting its importance, and to-day is in an excellent state of preservation. Thus the expressed desire and often recurring efforts of the Institute to secure for itself a permanent home has been accomplished after nearly half a century of existence. May it typify to those who assemble in it, as well as to the people of the City of Washington, the spirit of public service!

The Institute has ample reason for felicitation in both the increase and betterment of our own schools of architecture, in Harvard, Columbia, Penna, Cornell, and Chicago Universities, as well as in the admirable and still older foundation of the Institute of Technology in Boston. The movement to endow an American Academy of Fine Arts in Rome on the general lines of the French Academy in the Villa Medici is not new. Till now dependent for support upon the insufficient means at the command of the incorporators (members of the Institute), the number of scholars has of necessity been small, and the conveniences for work not such as would be afforded by an older, well-equipped, and well-endowed institution.

Nevertheless, in spite of its vicissitudes, such has been the quality of the work and men turned out, so strong the conviction of those most deeply interested in the need for an institution offering a post-graduate course intended only for those who shall be already technically well equipped, that a bill for the incorporation of the American Academy in Rome by Act of Congress, and asking the protection of the United States Government, was introduced in 1901 by the late Senator McMillan. The persons named as incorporators, besides the leading architects, painters, and sculptors, include the great universities and technical schools, represented by their presidents, the Secretaries of State and War, the Librarian of Congress, the Government architect, and a considerable number of names of men chosen from the community at large known for their interest in art and art education.

This bill passed the Senate, and was favourably reported to the House; but owing to the legislative conditions prevailing in the latter body during the closing weeks of the session, it failed to become law. I am happy to say that it will be reintroduced in the coming fifty-eighth Congress and is considered to have every prospect of success.

Indeed we seem to be living in a new age, not only in our private enterprises, but in our relations with the Government. It was no small thing that a committee of the United States

Senate, under the leadership of the deeply mourned Senator McMillan, called into consultation, officially, the Institute and accepted the advice of its Committee in the formation of a commission to prepare plans for the improvement of the park system of the district of Columbia, including the location of public buildings.

Following this lead have come frequent requests from Government officials on the various and often perplexing problems of their departments, so that, informally and unofficially, there has come to pass a seeking for expert advice as gratifying as it has been unusual.

The forces which have brought about plans for the improvement of the National Capital are acting throughout the land. Not only in the Atlantic seaboard city of New York and the cities of the lake region, like Buffalo, Cleveland, and St. Paul, but even from far away Seattle, on the Pacific Coast, comes the news of attempts to treat the city as a unit and to develop a municipality as a consistent work of art.

It is worthy of note also that as the star of progress takes its western way, the effort at improvement is made with increasing vigour in both enthusiasm and money.

As evidence of the times, and amongst the measures voted by the last (fifty-seventh) Congress for new buildings to be erected within the district of Columbia alone, I will quote the substance of a single paragraph from the Report of the Senate Commission of the District of Columbia, dated 14th March 1903:—

“The fifty-seventh Congress, besides the restoration of the White House, authorised the construction of the Army War College and the Engineer School of Application; a building for the National Museum . . . ; the Union Railroad Station; (an office) building for the use of the members of the House of Representatives; a Municipal Building for the district of Columbia, and a Hall of Records.” The cost of these buildings completed will approximate to not less than fifteen millions of dollars, or over three millions sterling.

I cannot close even these brief remarks without an expression of appreciation for one to whom your eminent body so recently did honour. After nearly half a century of successful endeavour, during which Mr. Hunt held aloft the banner and fought the battles of the Institute, and in the fulness of his powers, at a time when his influence was greatest, he was suddenly taken away.

Ladies and Gentlemen, I have to thank you for the great patience and forbearance with which you have listened to these fragmentary remarks that but poorly express my appreciation of the great honour which you have seen fit to confer upon me.

His Excellency the Hon. JOSEPH H. CHOATE, the American Ambassador, who rose at the invitation of the President, said that he stood before the meeting in a three-fold capacity—first, and he thought most important, as the personal friend of Mr. McKim; secondly, as a Harvard man, representing the University that was so proud of him [*applause*]; and, thirdly, as the official representative of his country, upon which, in honouring him, the Institute had conferred a lasting and highly appreciated honour [*applause*]. He knew how dangerous it was for a layman to appear and say a word before a company of distinguished men of a profession to which he did not belong, but he believed that in either of those three capacities he could say a word without encountering that technical criticism which naturally fell from the minds, if not from the lips, of the

learned upon one who was emphatically ignorant. It had been his good fortune to know Mr. McKim from boyhood—from Mr. McKim's boyhood, he was sorry to say, not from his own—and he thought it was not exaggerating the estimate of his friends, in view of his whole-souled devotion to the art which he pursued, of the sweetness and simplicity of his character, and of his enthusiasm from the beginning for the profession which he had so highly honoured, if he said that from the beginning they all expected, from thirty years ago until the present time, that he would receive, if not this particular Medal, the highest honour that his professional brethren throughout the world could confer upon him. [*Applause.*] And then as a Harvard man he rejoiced in being present that evening. They doubtless knew that Harvard bore the same relation to American life that Oxford

did to the life of Great Britain, and Harvard was particularly proud of this son whom the Institute had selected for this high distinction. Harvard had already conferred upon him one of her honorary degrees, and he believed that the day was not far distant when she would again select him for conferring upon him the highest degree that was known to her records. Then, as representative of his country, he had no hesitation in saying that if they had put to the vote of the whole American people, who among her distinguished sons was most worthy of the honour they had conferred that evening, by a practically unanimous vote they would have selected Charles F. McKim; and if they had called for the vote of the Congress of the United States, as representing the power and judgment of the whole community, they too would have selected him, because with their approval he had been selected and had taken an important part in that commission—a Presidential commission, it was true, corresponding very much to what would here be called a Royal Commission—in the restoration and laying out of the city of Washington—the development of the city of Washington upon the lines and according to the plan that received the approval of the father of his country, George Washington, more than a hundred years ago. Not only their capital city, but their Republican palace, the White House—simple, wholly unambitious, not venturing to compete with any of the palaces of the Old World, but the home of their President, to which every ingenuous American boy was taught to look forward as his ultimate home [*laughter*—not only the White House, but the city itself had been laid out upon more generous plans by the father of his country than the mistake, should he say, of subsequent generations had allowed to be developed; and it was thought a few years ago that it would be wise to select a commission of competent architects to see whether the original plan of Washington could not be again brought to life and restored and put in practical operation, both in regard to the White House and in regard to the city of Washington itself; and it was no secret that to the genius of Mr. McKim and his associates on that commission was to be ascribed the success of their study, which had resulted in a complete restoration both of their Republican palace, and of the city of which they were all so proud. If it had been put to the appointment of the President—who might take the place of His Gracious Majesty the King in the selection of an American architect—he knew that the President, from his lifelong friendship and hearty sympathy with Mr. McKim in all the successive and increasing incidents of his career, would have joined in the approval of his selection for this honour. [*Applause.*] It was his good fortune to know Mr. Richard M. Hunt, whom

ten years ago the Royal Institute of British Architects honoured in the same way, and he thought he might say of both those gentlemen that in that immense development of their art which had taken place in the United States during the last thirty years, both of those gentlemen were entitled to a very great share of the credit. After the Civil War was over, and it was at last established for once and for ever that the United States was to be a nation for ever, one and inseparable, an indestructible union of indestructible States, there grew up throughout the length and breadth of the land an ambition to improve, to adorn, to glorify its buildings, both public and private, in all quarters of the realm; and, as Mr. McKim had said in his admirable address, from Boston on the shores of the Atlantic to Seattle on the shores of the Pacific, this purpose of acquiring, of having and living in buildings equally remarkable for their beauty as for their utility, and for having their public buildings worthy of the municipalities and of the country, and of the great wealth and power that they represented, had been a universal sentiment, and the result was that America had been, was now, and was likely to be in the future, a perfect Paradise of architects! [*Laughter and applause.*] Then there had grown up not only, he might say, one school of architecture, but many schools of architecture connected with their great universities, and they were sending forth year by year large numbers of young men highly qualified for the pursuit of this noble profession. These young men were following in the footsteps of Hunt and McKim, upon whom the Institute had conferred this highly honourable and distinguishing Medal, and, if he was not mistaken, the result would be that they would have added to their fraternity of architects—for he believed they were one great fraternity throughout the world [*hear, hear, and applause*—a noble contribution from the United States, of whom, as he believed, as of the recipient of this honour that evening, they would all have reason to be proud. (*Loud applause.*)

Sir LAWRENCE ALMA-TADEMA [*H.A.*], asked by the President to say a few words, said that he welcomed Mr. McKim because he felt that he was more or less one of themselves. In the Royal Academy, from time immemorial, in selecting the works of art for their annual exhibitions, they had two standards, one standard for the English fine art, and one standard for the foreign. They were more lenient to the home artists, perhaps; that was only natural. Since time immemorial also (continued Sir Lawrence) the works sent in by Americans went with ours. We had always believed that they belonged to us and that we belonged to them—[*hear, hear*—that we were one great fraternity. He (the speaker) had been reproached that he had never been to America, and indeed he reproached himself; but one could

not do everything. He should like very much to know more intimately the many friends of his art he knew he had on the other side of the Atlantic. He should see among them, he was sure, things that would interest him deeply. A friend once said to him, "If you want to write a history of the art of the nineteenth century, you cannot do it without going to America." This was especially true, perhaps, as regards architecture. The Americans had developed a taste in architecture which he should have liked to make personal acquaintance with. He had seen photographs, and drawings, and plans, and elevations; but, as it seemed to him, in all those representations the soul was still a little wanting. Therefore it was by proxy, as it were, that he admired Mr. McKim's art. But he was quite assured by what his Excellency had told them that, as they had unanimously awarded him the Royal Gold Medal, the same would have been done equally unanimously on the other side of the Atlantic. It formed one tie the more amongst friends who loved one another well, and who did so well to tie the bow of art as tight as they could.

THE PRESIDENT invited Mr. Abbey to speak, as he had an intimate acquaintance with Mr. McKim's work, and had also had some share in its adornment.

Mr. E. A. ABBEY, R.A., said he was not accustomed to public speaking; he had endeavoured to express himself as well as he could in another way. But when a man to whom he owed as much as he did to Mr. McKim was the recipient of such an honour as this, he felt that he could not refuse to say something in recognition

of what not only he owed to Mr. McKim, but what the great body of artists who were working on certain lines owed to him in America, and he hoped would owe to him in other places as well. Mr. McKim and the President had touched in a very slight way upon the great scheme of the American School in Rome. This scheme seemed to him to be the beginning of a Renaissance—of the wedding, he might say, of the arts of painting, sculpture, and architecture, which in his opinion had been separated too long. This school in Rome, which owed so much to Mr. McKim's energy and devotion, was one which he hoped they should see English students going to as a sort of Mecca, a university of combined arts which would once more be brought together. He had been very glad to be present and to testify to Mr. McKim's devotion and to his warm friendship through many very trying days.

THE PRESIDENT said there was only one further request that they should like to make to Mr. McKim. When he went back to America they should lose him, and would not have the advantage of having him among them from time to time. But he knew it would be the wish of everyone that Mr. McKim should become one of their Honorary Corresponding Members so that they might hear from him from time to time what was being done on the other side of the Atlantic. He trusted Mr. McKim would consent to become an Honorary Corresponding Member.

Mr. McKIM, in assenting, said he felt deeply grateful for the honour of being associated with the Institute even so remotely as, he was sorry to say, it must necessarily be.



9, CONDUIT STREET, LONDON, W., 27th June 1903.

CHRONICLE

The Annual Dinner.

The Annual Dinner of the Institute was held at the Whitehall Rooms on the evening following the presentation of the Royal Gold Medal. The President, Mr. Aston Webb, R.A., presided, and among the guests were the American Ambassador and Mr. McKim, the Earl of Lichfield, Viscount Dillon, the Bishop of London, Lord Redesdale, Lord Monkswell, the Lord Mayor of London, the Hon. Sir Schomberg McDonnell, Sir Thomas Sutherland, Sir Edward Poynter, P.R.A., Sir Wm. Richmond, Sir L. Alma-Tadema, Sir Charles Scott, Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., Sir Arthur Rücker, Sheriffs Sir George Truscott and Sir Thomas Brooke-Hitching, Rev. Sir Borradaile Savory, Sir Henry Howorth, K.C.I.E., the Archdeacon of London, the President of the Royal College of Surgeons, the President of the Surveyors' Institution, the Master of the Carpenters' Company, Mr. Thomas Brock, R.A., Mr. Edwin Abbey, R.A., Mr. George Frampton, R.A., Mr. H. H. Armstead, R.A., Professor Armstrong, Mr. G. L. Gomme, &c. At the high table also were Sir John Taylor, K.C.B., and two Past Presidents, Sir Wm. Emerson and Mr. Macvicar Anderson. There were also present the President of the Architectural Association, and the Presidents of the following Allied Societies: The Royal Institute of Architects of Ireland, Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds and Yorkshire, The Northern Association, Glasgow, Cardiff, S. Wales and Monmouthshire, and Devon and Exeter. The Earl of Wemyss and March, Sir Francis Sharp Powell, M.P., and Mr. Fletcher Moulton, K.C., M.P., had accepted invitations, but at the last moment were prevented from coming. The following is an alphabetical list of the company present:—

Mr. Edwin A. Abbey, R.A.; Mr. Maurice B. Adams [F.]; Mr. T. W. Aldwinckle [F.]; Sir Lawrence Alma-Tadema, R.A. [H.F.]; Mr. Louis Ambler [F.]; The American Ambassador; Mr. J. Macvicar Anderson, F.R.S.E., *Past President*; Mr. F. R. Appleton; Mr. H. H. Armstead, R.A.; Professor Armstrong, F.R.S.; Mr. G. C. Ashlin R.H.A. [F.], President of the Royal Institute of Ireland

Mr. R. Stephen Ayling [F.]; Mr. Frank T. Baggallay [F.]; Mr. T. J. Bailey [F.]; Mr. R. S. Balfour [A.]; Mr. F. W. F. Barham; Mr. C. E. Barry [A.]; Mr. A. W. Bartlett; Mr. H. H. Bartlett; Mr. J. W. Beaumont [F.], President of the Manchester Society; Mr. W. C. Beetles; Mr. E. Ingress Bell [F.]; Rev. Canon Benham; Mr. Thomas Blashill [F.]; Mr. G. F. Bodley, R.A. [F.]; Mr. T. V. Bowater; Mr. R. H. Boyce, C.B.; Mr. Thomas Boyce; Mr. Thomas Brock, R.A.; Mr. H. K. Bromhead [F.], President Glasgow Institute; Sheriff Sir Thomas Brooke-Hitching; Mr. C. W. Brooks [A.]; Mr. D. J. Brooks; Professor G. Baldwin Brown [H.A.]; Mr. Albert Buck, President of the Surveyors' Institution; Mr. J. J. Burnet, A.R.S.A. [F.]; Mr. W. D. Caroe, F.S.A. [F.]; Mr. R. F. Chisholm [F.]; Mr. F. Dare Clapham [A.]; Mr. J. R. Clayton, F.S.A.; Mr. Thomas E. Coleutt, *Vice-President*; Mr. H. H. Collins [F.]; Mr. H. O. Cresswell [F.]; Mr. A. W. S. Cross [F.]; Mr. Alfred Culshaw [F.]; Mr. Percival Currey [F.]; Mr. Thomas W. Cutler [F.]; Mr. Alfred Darbyshire, F.S.A., *Vice-President*; Dr. Morriston Davies; Mr. G. B. Davis; Mr. C. J. Dawson [F.]; Mr. T. M. Deacon; Viscount Dillon, President of the Society of Antiquaries; Mr. A. Dixon; Mr. T. O. Donaldson; Mr. D. G. Driver; Mr. F. E. Eales [F.]; Mr. Alfred East, A.R.A. [H.A.]; Mr. C. L. Eastlake; Col. John Eaton, C.B. [F.]; Mr. Ernest Emerson [A.]; Sir Wm. Emerson [F.], *Past President*; Mr. R. Fabling; Mr. W. G. Faulkner; Mr. H. Favarger [F.]; Mr. W. M. Fawcett, F.S.A. [F.]; Mr. Owen Fleming [A.]; Mr. Wm. Flockhart [F.]; Mr. Frank Fox [A.]; Mr. George Frampton, R.A. [H.A.]; Mr. Ernest George [F.]; Mr. E. M. Gibbs [F.]; Mr. Herbert Gilbey; Mr. Wm. Glover [F.]; Mr. G. L. Gomme, F.S.A., Clerk of the London County Council; Mr. Alexander Graham, F.S.A., *Hon. Secretary*; Mr. E. A. Gruning [F.]; Mr. A. L. Guy [A.]; Mr. Edwin T. Hall [F.]; Mr. S. H. Hamp [A.]; Mr. F. H. A. Harcastle [A.]; Mr. W. J. Harcastle [F.]; Mr. Henry T. Hare [F.]; Mr. Arthur Harrison [F.], President of the Birmingham Association; Mr. Christopher Harston [F.]; Mr. Killingworth Hedges; Mr. G. T. Hine [F.]; Mr. Francis Hooper [F.]; Mr. George Hornblower [F.]; Mr. F. V. Hornby; Sir Henry Howorth, K.C.I.E.; Sir Henry Howse, President of the Royal College of Surgeons; Mr. A. A. Hudson [H.A.]; Mr. C. E. Hutchinson [A.]; Mr. E. B. I'Anson [F.]; Mr. B. Ingelow [F.]; Mr. Arnold Inman; Rev. A. H. James; Mr. T. E. Lidiard James [F.]; Mr. H. O. Jenkyn; Mr. Zeph. King [F.]; Mr. F. G. Knight [F.]; The Earl of Lichfield; Mr. Frank Lishman [A.]; Rev. J. B. Lock; Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B.; The Bishop of London; The Lord Mayor; Mr. Henry Lovegrove [A.]; Mr. R. Falconer Macdonald [F.]; Hon. Sir Schomberg McDonnell, K.C.B.; Mr. C. F. McKim, *Royal Gold Medallist*; Mr. H. C. Marshall; Mr. Leonard Martin [F.]; Mr. J. Douglass Mathews [F.]; Mr. W. H. Matthews, Mayor of St. Pancras; Mr. Walter Millard [A.]; Mr. H. Percy Monckton [F.]; Lord Monkswell, Chairman of the London County Council; Mr. David Morgan [F.], President of the Cardiff, South Wales, and Monmouthshire Society; Mr. J. D. Mould [F.]; Mr. S. J. Mould; Mr. E. W. Mountford [F.]; Mr. Louis Mullgardt; Dr. A. S. Murray [H.A.]; Mr. John Murray [F.]; Mr. W. Hilton Nash [F.]; Mr. P. E. Nobbs [A.]; Mr. Paul Ogden [F.]; Mr. T. H. Openshaw, C.M.G.; Mr. F. B. Osborn [F.]; Rev. A. W. Oxford; Mr. Arthur S. Parker [A.], President of the Devon and Exeter Society; Mr. Alfred Parsons, A.R.A.; Mr. E. Harding Payne [A.]; Mr. F. W. Peel [A.]; Mr. H. A. Pelly [A.]; Professor Beresford Pite [F.]; Sir Edward Poynter, Bart., P.R.A. [H.F.]; Col. Lenox Prendergast [H.A.]; Mr. A. N. Prentice [F.]; Mr. G. H. Fynewyn Prymme [F.]; Colonel Raban, C.B.; Mr. Herbert Read [F.]; Lord Redesdale, C.V.O.; Mr. Harry Redfern [F.]; Mr. Reeves-Smith; Sir William Richmond, K.C.B., R.A. [H.A.]; Mr. Wm. Robinson; Mr. E. R. Robson, F.S.A. [F.]; Mr. G. St. Croix Rose; Sir Arthur Rücker, F.R.S.; Mr. R. Fabian

Russell [F.]; Rev. Sir Borradaile Savory, Bart.; Mr. Joseph Sawyer [F.]; Sir Charles Scotter; Mr. H. D. Searles-Wood [F.]; Mr. C. H. Seely, M.P.; Mr. W. H. Seth-Smith [F.]; Rev. W. Shapecott; Mr. George Sherrin [F.]; Lieut.-Col. Shipway; Professor F. M. Simpson [F.]; Mr. John W. Simpson [F.]; Archdeacon Sinclair; Mr. G. T. Skilbeck; Mr. Basil Slade; Lieut. Sladen, R.N.; Mr. John Slater, *Vice-President*; Mr. J. Osborne Smith [F.]; Mr. Walter Smith, Master of the Carpenters' Company; Mr. Lewis Solomon [F.]; Mr. Leonard Stokes [F.]; Mr. E. J. Stubbs; Sir Thomas Sutherland, G.C.M.G.; Mr. Arthur Sykes [A.]; Mr. A. W. Tanner [A.]; Mr. Henry Tanner [F.]; Mr. J. Walton Taylor [F.], *President* of the Northern Association; Sir John Taylor, K.C.B. [F.]; Mr. A. H. Ryan Tenison [F.]; Mr. J. Lewis Thomas, F.S.A. [H.A.]; Mr. A. Hessel Tiltman [F.]; Alderman and Sheriff Sir George Truscott; Rev. A. W. Upcott; Mr. Craig Wadsworth; Mr. Frederick Wallen [A.]; Mr. T. H. Watson [F.]; Mr. Aston Webb, R.A., *President*; Mr. E. A. Webb; Mr. Maurice E. Webb; Mr. W. A. Webb [A.]; Mr. C. W. F. Wheeler [A.]; Mr. Frederick Wheeler [F.]; Mr. Thomas B. Whinney [F.]; Mr. W. Henry White [F.]; Mr. H. H. Wigglesworth [F.]; Mr. E. Jenkyn Williams; Mr. Butler Wilson [F.], *President* of the Leeds and Yorkshire Society; Mr. Edmund Wimperis [A.]; Mr. J. T. Wimperis [F.]; Mr. R. Winder; Mr. W. Wonnacott [A.]; Sir Henry Trueman Wood; Mr. R. Selden Wornum [F.]; Mr. R. T. Wright; Mr. Clyde Young [A.]; Mr. W. J. Locke, *Secretary*, and other members of the Executive, and representatives of the Press.

Grace was said by the Bishop of London, and a selection of music was performed by the Leoni Ladies' Quintette during the evening.

The toasts of "The King," and "Queen Alexandra, the Prince and Princess of Wales, and the other members of the Royal Family," were proposed by the President and drunk with enthusiasm, as was also that of "The President of the United States," which followed. In proposing the latter the President referred to the tragic circumstances under which President Roosevelt was called to his great office. As Englishmen, he said, they all knew how nobly he had fulfilled the expectations of the American people.

The LORD MAYOR proposed "The United States of America." There was a special reason, he said, why they should on this occasion, wish prosperity to the United States, for they had with them an American who had succeeded in carrying off the Gold Medal offered by the King. This honour had been conferred upon their guest, the President of the American Institute of Architects, Mr. C. F. McKim. He (the Lord Mayor) remembered travelling a good many years ago through the United States, and he visited Chicago soon after the terrible fire that reduced it almost to ashes. The time that had elapsed between that calamity and his visit was very short, but the Americans, with that splendid energy which characterised them, had already covered the city with palatial warehouses, and he remembered attending a nigger entertainment where the entertainer said "the Americans are a wonderful people, Chicago is a wonderful city. It was in ruins a short time ago, and now it is mostly

covered with palaces that you can rent anywhere." That was long ago, and it was doubtful if they could rent anywhere in Chicago now, for that city, like other great cities in the States, had achieved an era of great prosperity, and he hoped it would continue to flourish. Great Britain had been singularly fortunate in the official representatives of America in this country. We had had Phelps, James Russell Lowell, and Bayard; and in Mr. Choate we had a worthy successor to the others.

His Excellency THE AMERICAN AMBASSADOR, in response, said it was a well-established rule of diplomacy that an Ambassador should be seen and not heard, and that no one of them ought to have any experience in public speaking. He therefore would have been most happy if the proper man had been called on to respond to that toast. And who was "the proper man" on this occasion but Mr. C. F. McKim, on whom, in London, the eyes of all his countrymen were turned at this moment with satisfaction for having achieved the honour he had—not so much for himself as for them? But if he must respond to this great and ever growing sentiment for the United States of America, he thought he knew in what spirit he ought to address that assembly. He might call their attention to the fundamental principles upon which his Republican Government rested; he might draw a distinction, perhaps flattering to both sides, between the advantages of democracy and monarchy; he might treat of those trusts and combines which were constantly being thrown in their teeth by the jealous people of Great Britain! But it was upon no such subject that he would address them, for it seemed to him that he should speak of the United States on that occasion only in an architectural sense—in a sense appropriate to their vocation and the sentiments of fidelity to their profession which had called them together that evening. And he must begin by admitting that the United States architecturally were still in the making—they were still, in that sense (and would continue to be for some time), entirely unfinished, and they were likely to afford to the noble profession of architecture lucrative employment for a thousand years to come; and then, at the expiration of that time, there would still be many vast places to be improved, many noble structures to be erected, much utility, much skill, and much beauty to be lavished upon the buildings of the still distant future. He believed Americans still had a tariff upon works of art—not so much, not so high, as it once was, but much higher than he hoped at some time in the future it would be. But there was no tariff in the United States upon architects. Americans were constantly preaching the doctrine, and they put it in practice, of "the open door," and he was authorised by Mr. McKim to say that there was room for all. Mr. McKim had not authorised him to say, but he knew it, that in the natural course of events—far

distant might be the day!—when Mr. McKim himself would retire, that would make room for—how many? Certainly for a hundred, possibly for a thousand! The history of the architecture of the United States—he spoke with deference and submission, for he knew nothing about it—seemed to be well exemplified in the history of the city of Washington and the district of Columbia, which was the seat of government. It appeared from a report lately made by the distinguished Gold Medallist, acting under a commission from Congress, that at the beginning of their Government the first President and his Secretary of State were well versed in this noble art of architecture, and that they brought to their aid knowledge and skill acquired upon this side of the water, and a distinguished architect and engineer from the Continent; and they laid out in magnificent proportions the city which was to be the future capital of the United States. That was a day of very small things and small means, and the great project which had been laid out was only in very small part accomplished, and, as time went on, the Capitol, with its originally limited proportions, was constructed. The city was laid out generally according to the plans of the father of his country at the outset, but they were often departed from, and it was only in recent years that the attention of the Government and of the architects of the country was drawn to the fact that that plan had not been carried out in its full perfection—had, in many ways, been departed from; and the genius of the architectural profession in America, as represented by the gentleman they had honoured by conferring upon him the Royal Gold Medal, and his associates had, combined with the wisdom of Congress, brought about a restoration of the original plan. He believed that under their combined efforts the future would show a city of Washington, with its public buildings, its magnificent avenues, its glorious parks, extending through the district of Columbia, which would challenge comparison with any capital in the world. Well, as it had been with the capital of the Federal Government, so it had been in large measure with the whole of the country and people of the United States. For many years, for many generations, they were altogether too poor to indulge in the luxury of architecture—and nobody knew better than that present company how very costly and expensive a luxury it is. In those early days they imported architects—they believed that architects, like all other men, were free and equal, and with certain inalienable rights, such as life, liberty, and the pursuit of business—and they permitted them to come, and they did come, and helped the United States in their then humble undertakings. But now the circumstances of the United States had improved. It was an ill wind that blew nobody good, and the vast accumulations of property, the vast companies and com-

munities of interest which people on this side of the water seemed to be somewhat afraid of—whatever other effect they might be having—were certainly having the effect of bringing the noble profession of architecture into the very front rank of occupations in America. Almost every countryside, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, was being adorned with comely, commodious, and beautiful residences, such as could be seen in the photographs of examples on the walls of the Institute meeting-room the previous evening. The municipalities of the United States were competing with each other as to which should have the finest buildings to represent the municipality; the States—and there were forty-five of them—were contending one with the other to see which should have the noblest, the most commodious, the most beautiful State House; and over and above them all, the United States of America was spending the national funds very largely in the erection all over the country of court houses, and custom houses! As the country grew, so they wanted more, and though they had many architects they wanted a great many more—although they had many highly skilled architects, they wanted a great many more of the highest skill and character. He had said the previous evening that the United States was a paradise of architects. That was no joke, it was really so; and he thought architects would come from the east and from the west, and from all parts of the world, and help Mr. McKim and his associates in adorning and decorating the great Republic of which they were all so proud. This was a glowing and a happy picture which he held out to them; it was equally glowing, equally happy, equally satisfactory, to Americans themselves. He hoped that when they visited America—and it was really an essential not only of a liberal but of a fair education for an Englishman—that in America they would be able to present to the visitors, not only in their national capital, but in all the states and towns and rural districts, work by their architects which would be worthy of any country and of any time.

Sir L. ALMA-TADEMA, R.A. [*H.A.*], said it was his great pleasure to propose the toast of "The Houses of Parliament," and he was called upon to do it as "an architect." They should not laugh, for he was proud of being an Honorary Fellow of the Institute. He felt great admiration for the Parliament that had built up our history, and great respect for the laws it had given us.

The EARL OF LICHFIELD, who responded for "The House of Lords," said that a little while ago there was an agitation to end or mend the House of Lords, but he thought that now most people would wish to leave things as they are. The fact was that the continuance of the House of Lords depended very largely on the rules which regulated recruiting to that House. Every year

distinguished men from politics, science, art, recruited the House of Lords, and as long as that system was kept up the Lords would retain the confidence of the country. He was glad to have that opportunity of congratulating his friend and their President on the honour which had recently been done him, and which he so well deserved.

Mr. C. H. SEELY, M.P., responded for "The House of Commons." Parliament, he said, owed much to architects, for one of the greatest architects who ever lived built them a palace to live in—one of the finest, if not *the* finest, building of modern times in Europe. It was true that building was not quite as comfortable to live in as it might be; when one sat on the floor of the House on a crowded night because there was no room on the benches, and when one looked round the small smoking-room to try and find a seat, one wished that the architect had paid a little more attention to comfort and a little less to the external appearance of the building. But if Parliament owed much to architects, architects owed something to Parliament, and the Institute must feel that this was so in the last Parliament. As one walked down Whitehall and elsewhere and saw the new public buildings rising, it must be felt that Parliament had done its best to afford architects an opportunity which all States ought to give to those who devoted their lives to architecture—an opportunity of showing in material the ideas which were in their minds, and of erecting great buildings for future generations to see. And if, sometimes, the question of the cost of raising the funds for what had been described that evening as "an expensive luxury" caused occasional unpleasant hours in Parliament, still, among the architects of England were to be found men who could build fine buildings for posterity to see. There should be sympathy between statesmen and architects: for statesmen were engaged to some extent in the same work. "Empires rise and fall, and nations come and go"; but future generations judged architects largely by the buildings that they left behind them. It was by the solidity of the Roman stonework that we judged of the strength and the solidity of the old Roman Empire now gone; it was by the grace of the Greek architecture that we judged of the greatness of the Greek mind. Statesmen of England, as they looked about our country and thought of the works of the past and the works of the present, might well feel that when they were past and gone future generations would judge this and past generations by the buildings left behind. He believed that modern buildings would be worthy of the present times. Statesmen wrote their minds upon the daily press; architects wrote their names in stone on the buildings they erected. Those who were engaged in the business of daily government must

feel humble as they came before those who built not only for the day but for the distant future.

The LORD BISHOP OF LONDON, in proposing the toast of "The Royal Institute of British Architects and the Allied Societies," said that in one sense he was fitted to propose the toast, for he came with the perfectly unbiassed mind of one who did not pretend to lay down the law to experts—perhaps it was for that reason that he had always got on so well with architects he had worked with? He fancied that the clergyman who thought he knew all about it must be rather an irritating person at times to the architect. He once had half an hour's conversation with the late Sir Arthur Blomfield, who was to build him what was the apple of his eye—what he had long wished to have in Bethnal Green, *i.e.* the building which was erected and called Oxford House. What Sir Arthur Blomfield did by that building for the new settlement, for a new kind of work, had greatly helped him along in his work at Oxford House, and it gave him a high opinion of the practical way in which the architect set about his work. In passing he would like to mention that magnificent church at Smithfield which had been recreated by their President. That brought him to what he specially wanted to say—*i.e.* that those in his profession were working together against three foes, the chief of which was the materialism of our time. Against that materialism, which was demoralising all sections of society, he looked to architects to help him. St. Paul's Cathedral alone had preached a grander sermon than had ever been preached in its walls. It stood there with all its noble dimensions, and those who came within its walls were comforted and calmed by the building itself. He could not mention St. Paul's in the circumstances without thanking one of the millionaires of the United States, Mr. Pierpont Morgan, for having given, at great cost, the electric lighting of the Cathedral, which was now lighted efficiently for the first time. He thought he consecrated one church a month throughout the year, and it was architects who by their buildings were helping to break through the materialism of the day. And in that war, too, they fought against ugliness in every form. Whom had he found helping him in the slums—who had helped him to cope with the ugliness to be found there? Why, it was an architect who was present among them that evening—*viz.* Mr. Owen Fleming. Another foe was the worldliness of the world, and in that connection he had read with the greatest interest and pleasure a delightful article on the late Mr. F. C. Penrose, which appeared in a recent issue of the Institute JOURNAL.* Towards the end of that article the writer said:—

* Mr. Grace's Memoir, in the number for 9th May, pp. 339 *sqq.*

"Was he successful? We must also ask ourselves, What is success? Perhaps we are all too apt to measure success by conventional standards, in which monetary reward and wide repute claim a large part. Yet it is certain that these, combined or apart, cannot in themselves bring happiness, nor even content. If to have carried through a long life a name untarnished, to have held to truth and right, to have been free of any mean or petty impulse, and to have won the affectionate respect of his fellows, be success, then I think that Francis Cranmer Penrose was a successful man." The great architects did not look to the worldly success, to the money reward, but to ideals—the ideals beyond this world, ideals which would leave lasting memorials behind. In giving the toast, he would conclude by congratulating the President upon the great distinction which had just been accorded him.

The PRESIDENT, who on rising was received with musical honours, thanked the assembly for the kindness of their reception. As architects they were proud of the terms in which the toast had been proposed. They had many distinguished guests there that evening, and on behalf of the Royal Institute he wished to thank them for being present. With their distinguished American guests with them, their thoughts naturally went towards American affairs, and he could not do better than touch on one or two American matters. One of Mr. McKim's works had been the restoration of the White House. He did not know whether they knew the reason for that restoration—he only mentioned it to forget it as soon as mentioned—but it was because, in 1814, the British occupied and partially destroyed the White House. After that the building was patched up and repaired, but it was not until the present President took office that Mr. McKim was called in, and all traces of what once happened were removed. In the same way, they hoped that all traces of what happened at that time had been entirely wiped out of the minds of both peoples. Another American matter which very closely interested the members of the Institute was that the city of New York, in their Charter, which was granted in 1901, had provided for the formation of a Commission of Art, consisting of the Mayor of New York, the three presidents of the principal art societies of New York, and a painter and sculptor and architect, who were chosen each for three years, and three other residents of New York. These gentlemen, he understood, served on the commission without monetary consideration, but suitable offices were provided for them, and the expenses of the Commission were paid for by the city. The duties of the Commission, he believed, were these: no work of art could be brought now into New York without it being first submitted to this Commission for their approval; and by works of art were meant, not only pictures and sculpture,

but monuments, arches, lamps, and decorations of all sorts in the city. In the same way no work of art could be removed without similar approval. The Commission could also be requested to report upon all improvements which were proposed in New York—to advise as to new streets, municipal buildings, parks, gardens. He mentioned this because it seemed to him to be a matter on which they might take a leaf from America. As to the public improvements now taking place, and the public buildings being erected in London, the Government had of late years done the Institute the compliment of requesting them to nominate architects from whom they could select several to compete, or select one to carry out the work. In all cases the Government had loyally kept to the understanding, and had selected one of the architects nominated by the Institute. Unfortunately, in the case of the London County Council, that had not been done. In the case of the Holborn to Strand improvement the London Council applied to the Institute for the names of architects to prepare schemes; a competition was held, and Mr. Hare's scheme was selected as the best; but he was sorry to say that no steps had been taken to give effect to it. On the contrary, as far as he could understand, the recommendation of the Council's own Committee, that some control of the buildings to be erected should be exercised, had been entirely thrown over, and that great and important improvement, as far as could be seen, was to be carried through without any controlling hands on the buildings to be erected [eries of "Shame"]. Another point he might mention was that of architectural education. In America all the universities of the different States had a recognised architectural school, through which all students passed before entering on the practical work of an architect's office. We were beginning to attempt something of the same kind, and the University of Liverpool, whose architectural school was under Professor Simpson, and the Architectural Association in London, under Mr. H. T. Hare, had already started a day school for architects, where students could be prepared before entering an architect's office. But at present there was an absence of method amongst us. The Institute were proposing to do something to remedy this, for they had been invited by outside people to prepare some scheme which should bring all the means of education to a focus. The Institute had appointed a committee, and they intended to appoint others to join it, and see if they could not do something to meet the difficulty which they felt at the present time. In conclusion, the President said he should depart a little from the toast-list, and proposed that they should drink the health of their very distinguished guest, Mr. McKim, the Royal Gold Medallist.

The toast having been drunk with musical honours,

Mr. McKim, in briefly acknowledging the toast, said that since his arrival in England he had met with a succession of agreeable surprises which he never dreamt even were in store for him. He desired again to thank them for the honour and distinction they had conferred upon him—a distinction which on his side of the water would be felt to be conferred upon all, for he felt he had been selected for the honour in consequence of the accident of being President of the American Institute [No, no].

Mr. J. MACVICAR ANDERSON, *Past President*, in proposing the toast of "The Guests," said that amongst their guests that evening were several most distinguished men in various walks of life, and by their presence they had greatly added to the pleasure and gratification of the members of the Institute. With the toast he coupled the name of Sir Arthur Rücker, Principal of the University of London.

Sir ARTHUR RÜCKER, in response, said he hoped that in the future London would erect more buildings like that of the Royal College of Science. The new University must surely bring about the gradual extension of the means of education. They had, by the generosity of the Government, been provided with dignified buildings for their headquarters at South Kensington, and he hoped that before long there would arise numerous buildings worthy of the architects of the country, and also of science.

The proceedings then terminated.

The President's Academy Honours.

The Institute has had no opportunity to vote formally its congratulations to the President upon his attainment to full rank as a Royal Academician. His reception, however, at the Dinner last Tuesday leaves no doubt but that his honours are viewed by members with feelings of pride and of very genuine pleasure. His rising to respond to the toast of "The R. I. B. A." was the signal for a display of feeling not often witnessed at an Institute gathering. The Earl of Lichfield and the Bishop of London both referred to his promotion in their speeches, and tendered their congratulations.

The Birthday Honours.

The congratulations of the Institute will be cordially tendered to the following members whose names appear in the King's Birthday Honours List:—

William Alfred Gelder [F.], five times Mayor of Hull, who has received the honour of Knighthood.

Robert Cochrane, F.S.A. [F.] and Henry Tanner [F.], both of whom have been made Companions of the Imperial Service Order.

Unauthorised Use of Institute Title on Envelopes and Circulars.

At the Meeting of the Council held on Monday the 22nd inst., the following Resolution was passed:—

That the attention of the Council having been drawn to envelopes and the heading of circulars issued by Mr. Silvanus Trevail to certain members of the Institute, the Council express the opinion that such unauthorised use of the title of the Institute on the envelopes and circulars is unjustifiable, and should not be repeated.

The late William Simpson, R.I.

There are still many members of the Institute who cherish the kindest recollections of the veteran war artist-journalist, William Simpson, R.I., for many years an Hon. Associate of the Institute, and a generous contributor to the *JOURNAL* and the old *TRANSACTIONS* on Indian archaeological subjects. He has been dead nearly four years, and his loss has been irreparable, for the vast stores of knowledge he had laid up during long and painstaking travel in the most out-of-the-way regions of the far East were always being drawn upon for the benefit of the Institute *JOURNAL*. His old friends will learn with interest that his Autobiography, edited by Mr. George Eyre-Todd, is about to be issued by Mr. Fisher Unwin. The work is to be illustrated with many full-page reproductions of Simpson's finest and most notable pictures in the possession of His Majesty the King, the Duke of Newcastle, the Marquis of Bute, the Earl of Rosebery, the Earl of Northbrook, the Palestine Exploration Fund, and at the British Museum, South Kensington, and elsewhere. There is to be an *édition de luxe*, limited to 100 copies, at the price of two guineas net; and an ordinary edition at a guinea net. The work is to be issued for the benefit of Mrs. Simpson, the author's widow.

As the earliest of war artists, Simpson went through the campaign of the Crimea, and with such distinction as to earn for himself the sobriquet thenceforth of "Crimean Simpson." He was in India directly after the Mutiny. He followed Napier to Magdala, and took part in bringing the son of King Theodore home. He went with the Germans to Paris, and was shot at at Sedan. He was arrested as a spy, and passed through the dangerous episodes of the Commune in the French capital. And he took a brilliant part in the Afghan War, and by the merest chance—having left his comrades for a day or two to go on an exploration of his own—escaped assassination with Cavagnari in Cabul.

Among more pacific episodes of which he had intimate personal knowledge were the Kertch Expedition, the Duke of Newcastle's tour to Circassia, the opening of the Suez Canal, the examination of Warren's excavations at Jerusalem and Schliemann's at Mycenæ, the great Vatican Council of 1869, the Indian tour of the King (then Prince of Wales), the Afghan Boundary Commission, and such royal marriages as those of the Czar of Russia, the Emperor of China, the German Emperor (then Prince William of Prussia), and the Princess Louise.

Additions to the Library: Erratum.

In the list of Additions to the Library in the *Supplement* of the 13th June 1903, the presentation of the book entitled "The Housing Handbook: The Housing of the Working Classes" is wrongly ascribed to the author. The book was purchased and presented to the Library by Mr. Richard Armstrong [F].

LEGAL REGISTRATION OF ARCHITECTS.

Royal College of Art, S.W., 22nd June 1903

To the Editor of the JOURNAL OF THE ROYAL
INSTITUTE OF BRITISH ARCHITECTS.

DEAR SIR,—I hope that Mr. Seth-Smith's letter in the last number of JOURNAL will lead to the publication of the opinions of those provincial brethren who oppose the narrow policy of the Registration Bill.

I call the policy narrow because it is conceived mainly in the interests of its promoters, and will ensure, if adopted, the registration and recognition of that great majority of pseudo-architects who at present have not joined the Institute.

There are many architects, however, not members, that all of us would be proud to welcome into our body, and whose action is due to various causes, among which I venture to say without hesitation that the abstention of the Royal Institute of British Architects from the Registration movement is not one.

It is important, however, to remember that the Registration movement may give legal recognition to the very men of whom the whole profession have the best reason to be ashamed. The honest sense that binds members of the Institute together as those who decline to take unfair advantage of their professional position by receiving commissions and discounts from tradesmen employed for their clients, and which is essential to their clients' confidence, is ignored by

the Registrationists, and we are entitled to resent the impertinence which would patronise the Institute by using its educational examinations while refusing its code of professional morality.

Mr. Seth-Smith's confidence in affidavits does him honour; but, frankly, in this matter I have none.

The political aspect of the question is, however, decidedly unsatisfactory, for the Registration movement needs only an active propaganda to secure for its support all the unqualified (in the broadest sense of the term) practitioners in the country, and whose professed willingness to adopt the Royal Institute of British Architects' examinations for other people, but not for themselves (otherwise than by affidavit of exemption), is calculated to give to the policy of the Institute, as a body requiring an educational standard in its members, the appearance of desiring Registration.

I hope that it will become clear as a result of the agitation of the past few weeks—

1. That the Institute favours the freest exercise of the art of architecture without any legal restriction whatever.

2. That the Institute will continue to do everything in its power to promote architectural education and the attainment of a high degree of professional qualification.

3. That the Institute will consider itself charged to protect the public by the code of professional integrity of its members against dishonourable practices by those who call themselves architects.

Legal action could only do this imperfectly and formally, and is not desired even as such by the Registrationists; but it can be done effectually and simply by the strengthening influence of union with one's fellows of similar aims, and in a body which is representative and has the high purpose of furthering the art of architecture; it is for this that the Royal Institute of British Architects was founded.

Of Mr. Seth-Smith's value to the Registration movement I have the highest opinion; but the reasons that he gives for it, and his confusion of education with the question, indicate that he has not grasped the fact that the passage of such a Bill would inevitably lower the whole standard of the profession—which we are all sure he does not desire—as well as limit the exercise of an art that should be as free as song. Personal appeals may be perhaps allowed in our own JOURNAL, and so I would beg him to leave the Registration Bill to those who decline, for very good reasons of their own, to join the Institute.—Yours truly,

BERESFORD PITE.

ORIGINS IN EGYPTIAN ARCHITECTURE.*

It is no doubt unfortunately the case that at present no early dynastic Egyptian crude brick building of the Negada tomb type shows more than the lower portion of the walls. I do not deny that, in the original crude brick buildings represented by such a sarcophagus as that of Menkaura, wood may have been used for horizontal members, and doubtless was used for roofs. I merely deny that there is any justification for Perrot and Chipiez's imaginary early stage of wooden architecture of the type represented in their illustration, fig. 88 (vol. i. p. 117).

As to the lotus capitals, I would refer Professor Baldwin Brown to Foucart's book, where he clearly proves the buds of the Abusir capital to be lotus buds, and no other, every characteristic detail being preserved.

W. MARTIN CONWAY.

REFORM IN THE LAW OF
ANCIENT LIGHTS.

The Ancient Lights Bill, to amend the Law relating to Easements of Light, brought in by Mr. Fletcher Moulton, Mr. Haldane, Mr. Robson, Mr. H. D. Greene, and Mr. Herbert Robertson, was read a first time in the House of Commons on the 22nd inst.

This Bill is the result of the labours of the Joint Committee of the Institute and the Surveyors' Institution, whose appointment was the outcome of the Papers read before the Institute on the 19th March 1900 by Mr. Fletcher Moulton, K.C., M.P., Professor Beresford Pite [F.], and Mr. Douglass Mathews [F.]. The debate on that occasion lasted two evenings, and a resolution was come to that the law was in urgent need of reform, and the Council were empowered to take the necessary steps to bring the matter before Parliament with a view to getting an alteration of the law. The members of the Joint Committee thereupon appointed were Messrs. Edward A. Gruning [F.], J. Douglass Mathews [F.], J. Fletcher Moulton, K.C., M.P. [H.A.], and the late Professor Roger Smith [F.], appointed by the Institute; and Messrs. A. Rose Stenning, A. T. Steward, H. Chatfeild Clarke, and G. Mallows Freeman, K.C., appointed by the Surveyors' Institution. The Secretary of the Institute acted as Secretary to the Joint Committee.

* See Professor Baldwin Brown's observations, p. 420 ante.

The Bill, which has received the approval of the Councils of both bodies, is as follows:—

A BILL

INTITLED

"AN ACT FOR AMENDING THE LAW RELATING TO EASEMENTS OF LIGHT."

BE IT ENACTED by the King's Most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:—

Part I.

PRELIMINARY.

1. (1) This Act may be cited as The Ancient Lights Act, 19 .
(2) This Act shall come into operation on the . day of 19 .
This Act does not extend to Scotland or Ireland.

Part II.

DEFINITIONS.

2. (1) In this Act unless a contrary intention appears:—

- (i.) Tenement includes land also any dwelling-house workshop or other building.
- (ii.) Window includes any aperture for the purpose of admitting light.
- (iii.) Street means and includes any highway road bridge lane mews footway square court alley passage whether a thoroughfare or not and a part of any such highway road bridge lane mews footway square court alley or passage.
- (iv.) Owner includes every person in possession or in receipt of the rents and profits of a tenement and having an interest in such tenement not less than as a tenant thereof from year to year.
- (v.) Occupier does not include a lodger.
- (vi.) The tribunal of appeal means the tribunal of appeal constituted by this Act.

(2) In this Act if two tenements are so situated that the owner of the first is entitled to a right to light passing over the second the first tenement is called a dominant tenement and the owner thereof a dominant owner and the second tenement is called a servient tenement and the owner thereof a servient owner and the first tenement is referred to as being dominant over the second and the second tenement as being servient to the first.

Part III.

LIMITATION OF THE AMOUNT OF LIGHT OF A DOMINANT OWNER.

3. (1) From and after the commencement of this Act an owner of a dominant tenement shall subject as herein provided be entitled to such amount of light passing over the servient tenement as is reasonably necessary for the comfortable use and enjoyment of the dominant tenement if a dwelling-house or for its beneficial use and occupation if used as a place of business or for any other purpose than a dwelling-house and he shall not be entitled to any extraordinary amount of light necessary for any particular purpose trade or occupation.

(2) Nothing in this section shall confer on the owner of any dominant tenement over the tenement servient thereto any right to a greater amount of light than he would have possessed if this Act had not passed.

(3) This section shall not apply to a tenement in which a trade or occupation requiring an extraordinary amount of light has been continuously carried on for ten years during the continuance of such trade or occupation.

(4) This section applies only when the right of the dominant owner to the light passing over the servient tenement becomes absolute and indefeasible after the commencement of this Act.

Part IV.

OBSTRUCTION OF LIGHT BY NOTICE IN PLACE OF PHYSICAL OBSTRUCTION.

4. (1) The owner of a tenement which is not at the time servient to another tenement but over which such other tenement would in course of time become dominant may serve upon the occupier of and upon any other persons whom he knows to be interested in the tenement which would become so dominant a notice (in this Act called an Obstruction to Light Notice).

(2) An Obstruction to Light Notice shall be in writing in the form contained in the 1st Schedule to this Act or as near thereto as circumstances will permit and shall be accompanied by a plan and section or elevation showing the windows the access of light through or to which is to be deemed obstructed.

(3) On and after the day of service of an Obstruction to Light Notice the access of light to the windows mentioned in the Obstruction to Light Notice shall be deemed to be obstructed in like manner as if the same were actually and physically obstructed.

(4) Any person aggrieved by an Obstruction to Light Notice shall be entitled to the like relief so far as may be as he would have been entitled to if the access of light to the windows mentioned in the Obstruction to Light Notice had been actually and physically obstructed by the person serving the Notice.

(5) An Obstruction to Light Notice shall subject to any relief which may be granted before the expiration of one year from the day of service thereof by a Court of competent jurisdiction be deemed to be and shall have the like effect as an interruption within the meaning of Section 3 of the Prescription Act 1832 which has been submitted to or acquiesced in for a year.

(6) On the sale of any tenement it shall be the duty of the vendor to disclose any Obstruction to Light Notice which may have been served in respect of that tenement.

(7) It shall be the duty of any person who may receive an Obstruction to Light Notice under this Act in respect of a tenement which he holds as occupier or lessee for a term of years or for lives to forward or deliver such notice forthwith to his next superior landlord.

Part V.

RIGHT TO LIGHT PASSING OVER STREETS.

5. No title shall be acquired by prescription under the Prescription Act 1832 or at Common Law or otherwise by the owner of any building which shall have been erected after the 31st day of December 1890 and which abuts on any street to a right to light passing over a tenement on the opposite side of that street.

Part VI.

PROVISIONS FOR CERTIFICATED PLANS OF BUILDINGS ABOUT TO BE TAKEN DOWN.

6. (1) The owner of a building which is intended to be taken down and rebuilt may cause plans sections and elevations of such building to be prepared and may make application to the Official Surveyor for an inspection and survey of such building and for a certificate of the correctness of such plans sections and elevations and such application shall be dealt with as hereinafter provided.

(2) Every such application to the Official Surveyor shall be accompanied by a payment of the sum payable in accordance with the table of fees contained in the Schedule to this Act and such sum shall be his fee for the inspection and survey and for the grant or refusal (as the case may be) of the certificate and it shall not be lawful for the Official Surveyor to demand or receive any further fee or payment in respect thereof.

(3) The Official Surveyor shall either grant a certificate that in his opinion the plans sections and elevations are correct or he shall refuse to grant such certificate in which case he shall state the grounds of such refusal and such certificate or refusal shall be in the form set out in the Schedule to this Act with such modifications if any as the circumstances may require.

(4) Where the Official Surveyor refuses to grant a certificate applied for under this Act the applicant may if he think fit cause fresh plans sections and elevations to be prepared having regard to the objections stated in the form of refusal and may thereupon make a further application to the Official Surveyor to inspect and survey the building.

(5) If the Official Surveyor on re-inspection and re-survey be of opinion that the fresh plans sections and elevations are correct he shall grant a certificate under this Act with respect thereto.

(6) Where the Official Surveyor refuses to grant a certificate under this Act it shall be lawful for the applicant at any time within fourteen days after the date of such refusal to make application to the tribunal of appeal by way of appeal against such refusal and such appeal shall be accompanied by a copy of the form of refusal by the Official Surveyor.

(7) A certificate granted under this Act shall be conclusive evidence of the correctness of such plans sections and elevations in any actions or matter relating to the right of the owner of such building to light.

(8) In this section the Official Surveyor means in the case of a building situate in the County of London the District Surveyor appointed to the district in which such building is situated and in the case of a building situated in any other county but not within a borough the County Surveyor and in the case of a building situated in a borough the Borough Surveyor.

(9) The Official Surveyor shall keep a register of such drawings and shall thereupon be entitled to demand and receive the further fees set out in the Schedule to this Act. Such drawings shall be deposited at the Town or County Hall and be open to public inspection on payment of a fee as set out in the Schedule to this Act.

Part VII.

STATEMENT OF CLAIMS ARISING OUT OF RIGHTS TO LIGHT.

7. (1) Where a servient owner is erecting or intends to erect any new building or alter any existing building

on his tenement he shall at the request of the dominant owner give facilities to the dominant owner or any person duly appointed on his behalf to inspect the plans elevations and sections of such intended new building or alteration (if any) and if there be no such plans elevations and sections shall give such information relating to such intended building or alteration to the dominant owner as the dominant owner may reasonably require.

(2) A dominant owner who has made such request as aforesaid may at any time within seven days after inspecting such plans elevations and sections or receiving such information serve upon the servient owner a notice of his objections or the terms on which he is willing to permit the servient owner to erect his building. Such notice shall be in writing and sent by registered post or served personally.

(3) Such notice shall contain particulars of the estate or interest claimed by the dominant owner in the dominant tenement and also the name and address of a surveyor who will act on behalf of the dominant owner in case a difference between him and the servient owner should arise.

(4) If the servient owner shall within seven days after the service on him of such notice serve the dominant owner with notice in writing that he accepts the terms of such notice there shall be deemed to be an agreement between the dominant owner and the servient owner that the servient owner will fulfil the requirements of such notice.

(5) If the servient owner is not willing to accept the terms of such notice he shall within seven days after the service on him of such notice serve notice in writing that he refuses the terms of such notice and shall state the name of a surveyor who will act on his behalf.

(6) In this section the expressions dominant owner and servient owner include respectively persons claiming to be such respectively.

8. (a) Unless the servient owner shall have accepted the terms of the notice the two surveyors so appointed shall within ten days of the appointment of the last of them meet together and endeavour to determine the questions in dispute arising out of the said notice and shall before entering upon such questions appoint by writing under their hands an umpire to whom the matter shall be referred in case such arbitrators fail to agree.

(b) The umpire shall be a Member of the Royal Institute of British Architects or of the Surveyors' Institution.

(c) The umpire shall view the site and the dominant and servient tenements and make his award within twenty-one days after the original time appointed by this Act for making the award by the arbitrators has expired.

9. The arbitrators or their umpire may by their award decide any of the following matters namely:—

(a) The right of the owner of the tenement who proposed to build to carry out his intended works.

(b) The alteration if any necessary to be made in carrying out the intended new buildings or alterations so as to prevent or lessen obstruction to the lights of the tenements as set out in the notice of objection.

(c) The amount if any of compensation of every description to be made to the owner lessee or occupier.

(d) The alterations if any to the adjoining premises by light reflecting surfaces enlargement of lights heightening of premises or other means.

(e) The amount of costs to be paid by either party.

(f) Any other matter necessary to enable the difference between dominant and servient owners to be determined.

10. In the event of either party neglecting to appoint a Surveyor within the prescribed period or of the unwillingness of the umpire appointed to act and no other umpire being agreed upon within a period of ten days from his refusal to act either party may apply to the President for the time being of the Royal Institute of British Architects or the President for the time being of the Surveyors Institution who shall forthwith appoint an umpire.

11. Any award given by such arbitrators or their umpire shall be conclusive and shall not be questioned in any Court with this exception namely that either of the parties to the difference may appeal therefrom to the tribunal of appeal within fourteen days from the date of the delivery of the award and the tribunal of appeal may subject as hereafter in this section mentioned rescind the award or modify it in such manner as it thinks just.

12. If the appellant from any such award where the amount awarded exceeds 500*l.* in money damages or cost of works or where the interference with the proposed works exceeds 500*l.* refuses to accept the decision of the tribunal of appeal and gives security to be approved by the members of that tribunal to prosecute his appeal within one month from the publication of such decision and to abide the event thereof all proceedings in the tribunal of appeal shall thereupon be stayed and the appellant may bring an action in the High Court against the other party to the difference.

13. The plaintiff in such action shall deliver to the defendant an issue without pleadings whereby the matters in difference between them may be tried and the form of such issue in case of dispute or in case of the non-appearance of the defendant shall be settled by the High Court and such action shall be prosecuted and issue tried in the same manner and subject to the same incidents in and subject to which actions are prosecuted and issues tried in the Commercial Court of the High Court or as near thereto as circumstances admit.

14. If the parties to any such action agree as to the facts a special case may be stated for the opinion of the High Court and any case so stated may be brought before the Court in like manner and subject to the same incidents in and subject to which other special cases are brought before such Court or as near thereto as circumstances admit and any costs that may have been incurred in the tribunal of appeal by the parties to such action as is mentioned in this section shall be deemed to be costs incurred in such action and be payable accordingly.

Part VIII.

CONSTITUTION OF TRIBUNAL OF APPEAL.

15. For the purpose of this Act a tribunal of appeal shall be constituted as follows:

Three members shall be barristers-at-law and shall be appointed by a Secretary of State.
Three members shall be appointed by the Council of the Royal Institute of British Architects.

Three members shall be appointed by the Council of the Surveyors Institution.

16. A member of the tribunal of appeal shall be appointed for a term of one year and at the expiration of his term of office shall be eligible for reappointment.

17. The Lord Chancellor may remove for inability or misbehaviour any member of the tribunal of appeal.

The tribunal of appeal may act notwithstanding any vacancy in their body but not less than three members of whom one shall be a barrister-at-law shall attend at the hearing of any case.

18. The tribunal of appeal may hold sittings in any part of England in such place or places as may be most convenient for the determination of proceedings before them.

19. Upon the occurrence of any vacancy in the tribunal of appeal or during the temporary absence through illness or other unavoidable cause of any member thereof a Secretary of State the Council of the Royal Institute of British Architects or the Council of the Surveyors Institution (as the case may be) whichever of them shall have appointed the member of the tribunal whose place shall be vacated shall appoint forthwith a fit person to be a member (either temporary or permanent) of the tribunal in place of the member whose place is vacated or who is temporarily absent as aforesaid.

20. There shall be paid to each member of the tribunal of appeal such fees as a Secretary of State shall with the concurrence of the Treasury determine.

21. It shall be lawful for the tribunal of appeal to appoint such clerks officers and servants as they may find necessary who shall be paid such salaries as shall be determined by a Secretary of State with the concurrence of the Treasury and to provide offices.

22. The members forming for the purposes of each case the tribunal of appeal shall personally visit the tenements both of the appellants and the respondents.

23. The tribunal of appeal shall subject to the provisions of this Act have jurisdiction and power to hear and determine appeals referred to them under this Act and shall have power to determine whether and if so to what extent the proposed new buildings should be amended or the dominant premises altered.

24. For all the purposes of and incidental to the hearing and determination of any appeal the tribunal shall (subject to any rules of procedure duly made) have power to hear the parties interested either in person or by Counsel as they may think fit and to administer oaths and to hear and receive evidence and require the production of any documents or books and to confirm or reverse or vary any decision and make any such order as they may think fit and the costs of any of the parties to the appeal shall be in the discretion of the tribunal of appeal.

25. The tribunal of appeal may from time to time subject to the approval of the Lord Chancellor make regulations consistent with the provisions of this Act as to the procedure to be followed in cases of appeal to the tribunal of appeal including the time and notice of appeal and as to fees to be paid by appellants and other parties.

Enforcement of decision of tribunal.

26. Any order of the tribunal of appeal may be enforced by the High Court as if it had been an order of that Court.

27. In any action by a dominant owner against a servient owner in which an injunction is claimed notwithstanding that an injunction may by an interlocutory order have been already granted upon the application by motion of the servient owner either party may apply to a Judge of the High Court either to hear such action with assessors or to refer the matter to arbitration in accordance with the provisions hereinbefore contained. If on the hearing of such application the Judge shall be of opinion that the claim may be reasonably satisfied by damages he may on his own motion refer the case to arbitration and if on such hearing he shall be of opinion that the action for an injunction has been unreasonably or unnecessarily commenced he may order the party bringing such action to pay the costs of the defendant on such scale as he may deem fit.

LEGAL

What constitute "Working-class" Dwellings?

CROW V. DAVIS.

This was an appeal, by way of Special Case, from a decision of Mr. Haden Corser, police magistrate sitting at Worship Street Police Court. The facts are shortly as follows:—

On 10th February 1902 the respondent, Moses Davis, a builder and property owner, served the appellant, Arthur Crow, District Surveyor for Whitechapel, with notices under Section 145 of the London Building Act setting forth his intention to erect five shops and private houses in Spelman Street and Chicksand Street, Whitechapel. He also submitted plans of the principal floors of the buildings for the approval of the District Surveyor. On 25th February 1902 the District Surveyor served the respondent with "notices of objection" under Section 150, on the ground that the proposed buildings would contravene Section 13 (5) of the Act of 1894, as amended by Section 4 of the Amendment Act of 1898, which provides that "no dwelling-house to be inhabited or adapted to be inhabited by persons of the working-class shall without the consent of the Council be erected or re-erected within a distance of 20 feet from the centre of the road to a height exceeding the distance of the front or nearest external wall of such building from the opposite side of such street."

The builder appealed to the magistrate, who disallowed the District Surveyor's objection, being of opinion that the respondent had no intention that the houses should be occupied by persons of the working-class only, but that he intended them for occupation by anyone who would take them. He was further of opinion that the case was governed by the case of *The London County Council v. Davis*.

The magistrate, however, consented to state a case for the opinion of the High Court, which came before the Lord Chief Justice (Lord Alverstone), Mr. Justice Wills, and Mr. Justice Channell, on the 19th May.

Mr. Avory, K.C., Mr. F. F. Daldy, and Mr. A. S. Poyser, for the appellant; Mr. Cripps, K.C., and Mr. Clavell Salter for the respondent.

The Lord Chief Justice, in giving judgment allowing the appeal, said he had come to the conclusion that the case required further consideration by the magistrate. He did not understand his first finding—viz. that "the

houses when completed would not be specially adapted for habitation by persons of the working-class only. They would be suitable for occupation by any persons living in a small way, whether belonging to the working-class or not." The kind of question, he thought, that ought to be considered by the learned magistrate would be: whether the building was adapted for habitation by persons who would live as the working-classes do—that is to say, in small flats or separate tenements, all, so to speak, in the same house. If the true view of the section be that one had to see whether the house was adapted to be inhabited by persons of the working-class (meaning thereby a class of persons who would live in two or three rooms, and who would be likely to take two or three rooms in a house for the purpose of doing for themselves in those rooms without having any connection at all with the rest of the house) then he thought that the learned magistrate had excluded from his mind some of the broad considerations that he ought to have considered with reference to the overcrowding or the crowded inhabiting of houses of this class. Passing on to another finding—viz. that "the respondent had no intention that the houses should be occupied by persons of the working-class only, but that he intended them for occupation by anyone who would take them"—his Lordship said that that seemed to him to exclude what he might call the natural consequences of the way in which the houses would be occupied as they were built and constructed. If the builder constructed them in such a way that it was practically certain that they would only be inhabited by persons of the working-classes, then the fact that he intended them for occupation by anyone who would take them, meaning thereby that some persons might be willing to take a particular house out of a series and not occupy them or not underlet them for the purposes of the working-classes, would not be sufficient. But, coupling that with the magistrate's statement that he did not think either of the lessees would have taken those houses for the purposes of occupation if they were not going to underlet part, it seemed to his Lordship that the magistrate may have excluded from his consideration the question of whether or not the houses as constructed by the respondent were intended to be occupied by persons of the working-classes, even although there may have been an intermediate tenant. His Lordship doubted whether in this case the learned magistrate had not gone too far by limiting the scope of that adaptation, and by limiting the scope of the intention, which was indicated by the introduction of the words "special" and "only" with regard to adaptation, and by the word "only" with regard to intention. The learned magistrate seemed to have felt himself bound by the finding of fact in the case of *The London County Council v. Davis* as well as by the finding of law. Speaking for himself, his Lordship said that if he had to treat this matter as a question of fact, on the facts of this case, both from the point of view of adaptation and intention, it seemed to him to be far stronger in favour of the view that the houses were intended to be inhabited, and adapted to be inhabited, than they were in *The London County Council v. Davis*.

Mr. Justice Wills said he could not help feeling that the learned magistrate had laid too much stress on that word "only," both with regard to adaptation and with regard to intention. It was difficult to say that it was necessary that these should be adapted only to persons of the working-classes if they were adapted substantially for persons who were liable to the same difficulties in respect to overcrowding, and who, in that sense, belonged to the same class as the working-classes. With regard to intention, he could not help thinking that what the learned magistrate meant was, that the person who was intending to build them was

indifferent as to who would be his tenants so long as he could let them, but that their ultimate destination, in whosoever hands they were, was that they were to become working-class tenements, or to be occupied by persons of the working-class.

Mr. Justice Channell said that he preferred to base his decision upon the ground that the magistrate's finding as to the adaptation for persons of the working-class only was not satisfactory, and it did not seem to him to bring the case within what he personally thought he meant, and what he thought Mr. Justice Hawkins also meant, in the case that had been referred to. If the magistrate meant to find that those buildings were specially adapted in their construction for occupation as small dwellings, he should have thought that he had found facts which would bring it within this provision, because he did not see how they could say that a room was specially adapted for a man belonging to the working-class as distinguished from a clerk or any person of small means but earning his own living in any way. It must mean so adapted for separate dwellings as that it was likely that a large number of persons would be living in the house; and if so, it came within the mischief of the Act.

MINUTES. XVI.

At the Sixteenth General Meeting* (Ordinary) of the Session 1902-3, held Monday, 22nd June 1903, at 8 p.m., Mr. Aston Webb, R.A. elect, in the Chair, with 36 Fellows (including 15 members of the Council), 43 Associates (including 2 members of the Council), 2 Hon. Associates, 1 Hon. Fellow, and numerous visitors, the Minutes of the Business Meeting held 7th June [p. 432] were taken as read and signed as correct.

The Hon. Secretary announced the decease of Mr. Edward Woods, Hon. Associate, elected 1877, and it was resolved that a message of sympathy and condolence be sent from the Institute to his relatives.

The decease was also announced of Robert Walker, Fellow, of Windermere, elected 1893.

Members attending for the first time since their election were formally introduced and admitted by the President.

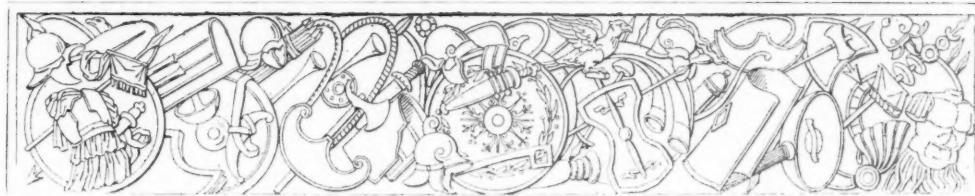
The President delivered an Address on presenting the Gold Medal, the gift of His Majesty The King, to Mr. Charles Follen McKim, President of the American Institute of Architects, and Mr. McKim having been duly invested with the Medal, replied in acknowledgment of the honour.

His Excellency the American Ambassador (the Hon. Joseph H. Choate), Sir Lawrence Alma Tadema, R.A. [H.A.], and Mr. Edwin A. Abbey, R.A., also addressed the Meeting on the subject of the Presentation.

At the request of the President, Mr. McKim intimated his willingness to serve the Institute as Hon. Corresponding Member, and expressed his gratification at being nominated for the honour.

The proceedings then closed, and the Meeting separated at 9.30 p.m.

* At the opening of the proceedings the Chairman reminded members that a Special General Meeting [see p. 412] had been summoned for that evening, but that with their permission the Special Meeting would be adjourned to a more convenient occasion.



THE ARCHITECTURAL DEVELOPMENT OF LONDON.

By OWEN FLEMING [A.].

Read before the American Institute of Architects at Washington, U.S.A., 12th December 1902.

DURING October 1902 it was my good fortune to be able to visit Washington, and I was then profoundly impressed with the stately dignity of the American federal city. The view of the Capitol from the end of Pennsylvania Avenue, illumined by the yellow rays of the setting sun, was one of the finest sights I have ever seen, and it was evident that those who were entrusted with the original planning and arrangement of the city had fittingly prepared it for the great part that it is destined to play in the councils of the nations. It was also my privilege to be able to visit the Congressional Library to study the exhaustive models and plans therein displayed for the further architectural development and embellishment of the Capitol and its surroundings. These designs convinced me that the architects and sculptors of to-day, appointed by Congress for the conception of this great scheme, have not only followed loyally in the steps of L'Enfant, but have developed and perfected his ideas with a breadth of grasp that calls forth our warmest feelings of admiration. There can be no doubt that when this scheme has been carried into execution Washington will become one of the fairest cities of the world.

It is an interesting coincidence that while Washington is thus preparing for itself a more glorious dress Westminster happens to be similarly engaged. The old rookeries and slums which now obstruct and confuse the southern view of Barry's masterpiece are to be swept away, and the grey towers of the Mother of Parliaments are to stand isolated on the river bank flanked on either side by the majestic curve of the Thames Embankment. This simultaneous manifestation of public interest in the architectural surroundings of the supreme Halls of Council of the two great divisions of the English-speaking race seems almost to possess special significance; and perhaps we shall not be too sanguine if we permit ourselves to see in this event some indication of a general desire that, in future, differences of opinion may be resolved in the calm and serene atmosphere of the deliberative assembly, and that the attention of our national councillors may be solely concentrated upon the peaceful development of the human race.

The architectural development of Washington will, however, be placed before you by far abler pens than mine. The task that has fallen to my lot is sufficiently difficult. I have been asked to indicate the chief causes which have contributed to the present shape and configuration of London, and in this connection it is important constantly to bear in mind that London had not the advantage of the conscious, deliberate scheme of planning that fell to the lot of Washington. The city is the unconscious outcome of natural requirements and conditions. It is perhaps a standing example of the practical working of the laws of least resistance, and therefore, though it can lay claim to the close attention of the student of the picturesque, its beauty is largely accidental. I propose in this paper to indicate the chief causes which have operated in the formation of the London of to-day: that great city which, with its suburbs, houses a population approaching 6,500,000 souls.

The geographical distribution of the city, or the county—as Greater London is now known, is a flat river basin in which the river takes a circuitous course from west to east. The existence of this river has not only determined the original site of London, but it has also operated to determine the line of general growth and the direction of the main streets. On either side of the river, and at some little distance therefrom, are ranges of low hills, and it is chiefly between these two ranges that London has grown, though on the southern side the hills have long ago been built over and the city has passed far beyond them. In order to obtain a clear idea of how London has grown, it is perhaps desirable to classify its history into certain distinct stages. These stages seem to fall naturally under the following heads:—

1. The birth of Westminster.
2. The birth of London.
3. The junction of Westminster and London.
4. The Mediæval City.
5. London's lost opportunity.
6. The Great Northern Boulevard.
7. The works of the ducal landlords and the Prince Regent.
8. The works of the Democratic Councils.
9. Future London.

1. *The Birth of Westminster.*—If the student of London's history will take a map, his attention will be arrested by a long straight road running from the extreme north-west corner to Hyde Park, and he will also notice another road, not perhaps quite as straight, but forming evidently a main highway from the centre of South London to the eastern edge of the map. He will probably surmise that these roads, known by the names of the Edgware Road and Peckham Road respectively, once had some connection; and his surmise will be accurate, for these two roads mark the site of one of the earliest British roads. In Roman times this road was known by the name of the Watling Street, and it connected the south coast of England near Dover with the northern districts of the kingdom. It was not possible to cross the great River Thames near its mouth, but about the spot where the Abbey of Westminster now stands the river spread its course over many miles of marshes, and when the tide went out it became comparatively easy to cross the river on foot. In the midst of these marshes was a small hill, known as "Tot Hill," and it is probable that on this little hill were arranged some buildings to rest man and beast on their journey to the north. On this spot the Romans also erected some buildings, but later on the spot fell into disuse owing probably to the construction of a bridge across the river lower down, and the diversion of the ancient Watling Street across the new bridge. For some centuries after this it is probable that Westminster was nothing more than a waste, but during Saxon times it seems to have been regarded as a suitable spot for the residence of the kings. The Saxon King Edgar is supposed to have displayed a great interest in this district, and to have founded the present Abbey, endowing it with a great manor. Whether the Danish King Canute and his sons lived here or not is uncertain, but it is clear that King Edward the Confessor was devoted to Westminster, that he lived there himself, and that he built a great church on the spot. Though this king died nearly a thousand years ago, his tomb still remains in the central chapel of the present Abbey, and his shrine is still visited annually by devoted Roman Catholic pilgrims. From this date onwards the Abbey and its precincts were continually being developed and extended. The kings also enlarged and beautified their palaces, and the present Westminster Hall, built in 1398 by Richard II., occupied the site of a previous building by William Rufus in 1090. It would seem almost a natural development that the seat of the sovereign power should also become the place of judgment, and this was the case. It is only within our own times that the Law Courts have been removed from Westminster.

2. *The Birth of London.*—The earliest written reference to the existence of London was made in the year of our Lord 61, when the Roman historian Tacitus informs us that it was a place of comparatively large population. Although the note of Tacitus is the first written reference to London, it is believed that the Trinobantes had a settlement on the present site of London years before the Roman invasion, and it is reasonable to suppose that this was so. Archaeologists incline to the view that the name London was originally spelt "Llyndin," which means the Lake Fort. It has already been explained that the greater part of the site of the present County of London was so near the river level that at high tides the river spread out over these low-lying lands and took the form of a lake. About the site of the present London Bridge, however, the land was of a higher altitude, and beyond the reach of the highest tides. The effect of this change of configuration was at once to produce a navigable river, and also to ensure dry land at the side eminently suited for the construction of wharves and houses. Such a position was almost ideal for the settlement of merchants in those days when the only law was the sword. This spot was bounded on the south by the River Thames, on the west by a smaller tidal tributary known as the Fleet, on the east by marshes difficult to cross, and on the north by dense forests. Here then was a site for a city from which merchants could reach through their ships the whole of the then known world, and yet upon which their goods could be stored in comparative safety and security. The river which washed its shores was too deep to ford, but a ferry probably existed from very early times. The exact date when the ferry was replaced by a permanent bridge is not known, but when the foundations of the present London Bridge were excavated, in the early part of last century, numerous coins were found in good preservation bearing the effigies of the Roman Emperors Constantius and his sons, Crispus and Constantine, and with the syllable "P. Lon." as mint mark. This not only indicates that London was at that period (A.D. 309) important enough to be the seat of a mint, but also gives ground for the view that these coins, in some form or other, commemorated the construction of the bridge. This view is supported by the fact that evidences of Roman occupation have been traced along the line of the southern access to the bridge. During the early years of the Roman occupation London was known by the name of "Londonium," but towards the end of the Roman occupation the name was changed to "Augusta." It is clear that the construction of the bridge would have tended to divert the line of the old Westminster ford, and this is what actually seems to have happened. The old road passing down Edgware Road, and known as Watling Street, is believed to have been diverted at the Tyburn, or about the present site of the Marble Arch. From this spot the line of traffic diverged to London Bridge, passing along the line of the present street called Holborn. It entered the City at Newgate. The Romans had another road from the bridge that went northwards. It occupied approximately the site of the present Bishopsgate Street. From this road a branch road to the right went to Colchester. In the early years of the Roman occupation a wall round the city was not considered necessary, but later on, about the middle of the fourth century, a wall was built surrounding the whole city. This wall enclosed an area of about three square miles. There were two land gates, three water gates, and a gate to the bridge.

It is very difficult to say what happened after the Roman legions were recalled to Rome. Deprived of their natural protectors, the merchants must have felt it difficult to carry on their trade. At all events, it seems clear that there was an interval of many years during which London was gradually deserted. Walls became ruins, grass grew again in the streets, and it was not until late in the Saxon period that it once again regained its traditional importance, and henceforward was recognised as the capital city.

3. *The Junction of Westminster and London.*—It is clear that between the king's stronghold of Westminster with its adjacent powerful Abbey, and the great commercial City of London, frequent communication was necessary, and the line of this communication naturally

followed the curve of the river. This road became known by the name of the Strand. On the borders of this street were grouped various communities who found the position convenient. The sites between the Strand and the river were used for the palaces of the great nobles. Essex Street marks the site of the town house of the famous Earl of Essex; the adjoining land was the property of the powerful Duke of Norfolk; Somerset House, Savoy, the home of the Cecils, and Northumberland House (afterwards Northampton House) and other great palaces linked London with Westminster on the river bank, while further north there were many settlements of monks and lawyers. The Knights Templars settled on that portion of the Strand nearest the City of London, and this portion was known by the name of Fleet Street. It crossed the River Fleet by a bridge and entered London by the ancient Roman "Lud Gate." On the other side the Strand was connected with Westminster by what is now known as Whitehall.

4. *The Mediæval City.*—Throughout the reigns of the mediæval kings London grew in wealth and importance. It did not spread very far, but the walls that the Romans had built were slightly enlarged. Within the walls, however, the city was continually becoming more picturesque. The great conventual buildings of St. Paul's, which legend affirms occupied the site of a Roman temple, were demolished in the early part of the fourteenth century, and in their place rose a magnificent Gothic Cathedral with a spire rising to the extraordinary height of 520 feet. In the reign of Henry II. an eager citizen, FitzStephen by name, gives us some idea of the beauties of the City. He tells us of the large number of churches in the city, which in his day were already 126 in number, and describes the houses with their overhanging gables and the line of booths in the streets. At this date the Tower of London had been well advanced, and away from the main streets FitzStephen tells us that there were many houses well furnished with trees, spacious and beautiful.

The Londoners of those days seem to have lived a merry life, and we hear later of such magnificent pageants as the triumphal entry of Henry V. after the Battle of Agincourt, welcomed by the wonderful chorus of the priests which even now seems of impressive grandeur.

London was also the scene of stirring political events. It was a Lord Mayor of London who struck down the sturdy Kentish peasant, Wat Tyler, and later on Sir Thomas Wyatt marched through London in insurrection against Queen Mary. This was the beginning of sad times for London, and the memory of the burnings of noble divines and others, culminating with the martyrdom of the Bishop of London in 1555 and the Archbishop of Canterbury himself, made an impression that is even yet vivid in the minds of Londoners.

5. *London's Lost Opportunity.*—The era of the Renaissance brought sadness to London. The growth of the city was even in those days causing alarm, and it is interesting to read the proclamation issued by Queen Elizabeth in the year 1580:

"The Queen's Majesty, perceiving the state of the City of London and the suburbs and the confines thereof to increase daily by access of people to inhabit in the same, in such ample sort, as thereby many inconveniencies are seen already, but many greater of necessity to follow. . . .

"For remedy whereof, as time may now serve, until by some further good order be had in Parliament or otherwise, the same may be remedied; Her Majesty, by good and deliberate advice of her Council, and being also thereto moved by the considerate opinions of the Lord Mayor, Aldermen, and other the grave wise men in and about the city, doth charge and strictly command all manner of persons of what quality soever they be, to desist and forbear from any new buildings of any house or tenement within three miles of the gates of the said City of London, to serve for habitation or lodging for any person, where no former house hath been known to have been in the memory of such as are now living; and also to forbear from letting or setting or suffering any more families than one only to be placed, or to inhabit from henceforth in any one house that heretofore hath been inhabited. . . .

"Given at Nonesuch, the seventh day of July 1580 in the two-and-twentieth year of Her Majesty's reign."

King James followed the example of Queen Elizabeth, and forbade the building of houses in the suburbs, but this artificial prevention of natural expansion had its inevitable result. The houses in the city were crowded more and more closely together, and it was not surprising that such overcrowding, coupled with the absence of sanitary regulations, resulted in a considerable amount of sickness. The visitation increased in virulence and ultimately took the form of the Plague. There are probably few persons who have not shuddered at the thought of this great city at the time of the plague: all business ceased, the streets were deserted, and the grim silence was only broken by the rumbling wheels of the death-cart and the hoarse cry echoing along the empty streets, "Bring out your dead." There was no time for ceremonious burying. Great pits were dug around the city, and the bodies were tipped into them pell-mell without coffins or even grave clothes.

The terrors of the Plague were from an architectural point of view perhaps of less importance than the great disaster of the fire in 1666. There have been other fires more extensive in character perhaps than this, but probably the destruction of rare and precious objects has never been equalled. In five days London lost her magnificent Cathedral, the Exchange, Custom House, the beautiful halls of City Companies, and numerous churches and chapels stored with rich vestments and priceless ornaments. In all 396 acres of houses, 400 streets, 13,200 dwellings, 89 churches besides chapels, and four of the city gates were destroyed.

But if London had lost what could never be replaced, here was a unique opportunity for the reconstruction of the city on a monumental plan, and the great architect of the day, Sir Christopher Wren, rose to the occasion and produced such a plan. It was perhaps the first scheme on a large scale for the design of a city, and it is well worth the closest study. Wren was handicapped by the lines of the old streets that had not been burned, but he utilised these as the basis of his plan. The old Leadenhall Street was to be carried straight through to the "Lud Gate," passing the Royal Exchange, which was arranged to be the centre of a scheme of radiating streets similar to those around the Capitol at Washington. St. Paul's was placed majestically fronting the wide *piazza* formed by the junction of Leadenhall Street with a new street of equal width nearly parallel to the river. The river itself was embanked with a spacious quay the whole way from the Temple to the Tower, and in front of London Bridge was created a great circus from which again streets radiated in all directions. It is melancholy to have to record the fact that this great scheme was brushed on one side by the haste of the commercial interests to begin rebuilding, and by the unwillingness of the citizens to co-operate for the common good. London thus lost an opportunity that will never recur.

6. *The Great Northern Boulevard.*—As might have been expected, the edicts of Queen Elizabeth and King James against the extension of the city were set aside by the catastrophe of the days of King Charles I. The geographical situation which had first marked out the site of London as eminently suited for commerce continued to exist, and with the development of civilisation in Europe and Asia, London continued to form the centre of attraction for great numbers of people. The city spread far beyond the ancient walls. The space between the Strand and the ancient Watling Street or Holborn became filled with houses. Even this extension was insufficient, and the city spread still further northward. Traffic increased, and it became clear that some further means of communication was required in the north. This was carried out in the reign of George II. by the construction of a series of roads beginning at the old "Moor Gate," passing to Islington, descending the Pentonville Hill and running past the church of St. Marylebone to the village of Paddington. The road was designed on a far more liberal scale than any of the mediæval roads, and although its width has been allowed to be encroached upon here and there, speaking generally, this road maintains the characteristics of a boulevard, and it is likely will continue to do so.

7. *The Works of the Ducal Landlords and the Prince Regent.*—Towards the end of the eighteenth century the number of the rich citizens of London had materially increased. Moreover, the rapid advancement of learning, the increased attention given to the fine arts, and the general desire for more healthful habitations, caused a continually increasing demand for dwelling-houses of a more stately character than those which had previously been found sufficient. The result of this movement was to bring into the building market the large estates and manors of the dukes and other nobles to the north and south of the old Holborn and its westward continuation of Oxford Street. Whatever political view may be taken of the question of large leasehold estates, architects are bound to chronicle with gratitude the liberal way in which these estates were laid out. The usual plan was to form a large open square, to plant trees and shrubs therein, and to arrange the houses facing upon the road surrounding the square. Frequently the whole of the houses surrounding the square were designed with a view to their architectural symmetry, and there is something very attractive about these great London squares, which still are favourite residential quarters. It is a matter of regret that this system of forming squares has not been followed in recent developments of building estates.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, a combination of circumstances arose that materially altered the aspect of West London. The then Prince Regent (afterwards George IV.) was in power, and exerted his influence to carry through a scheme of rebuilding that in those days might fairly lay claim to the title of majestic. The Prince Regent's palace was then known as Carlton House, occupying the *place* now existing between the Athenæum and the United Service Clubs in Pall Mall. In the north-west of London were some large open farms which had previously formed part of the lands of one of the houses of Henry VIII. The leases of the farms were falling in, and the Prince Regent conceived the idea of connecting a broad street from his palace of Carlton House to these farm lands (now Regent's Park), which were to contain a country house for him. The architectural opportunity thus afforded was a great one, and the Prince Regent was fortunate in finding an architect, Mr. John Nash, who designed the whole scheme. Americans who visit London are familiar with Nash's fine achievement. The skilful way in which the lower part of Regent Street (as the new street was called) was placed at right angles to the palace and connected with the upper part of the street by a majestic quadrant; the circuses which cunningly disguise the crossings of the new street with Piccadilly and with Oxford Street; the way in which the spire of All Souls' Church was brought forward to mask the awkward sweep into Portland Place; the fine semicircular treatment where Portland Place enters the park; the width of the new streets and the dignified designs for that period of the buildings fronting the streets, form a striking tribute to Nash's genius. He was also far-sighted enough to foresee the possibilities of forming the present Trafalgar Square, and he did this by continuing Pall Mall until it reached the top of the present square. The whole improvement was a great one, and though perhaps its savour is rather too artificial and reminiscent of the dandyism of Beau Brummell to be altogether in accord with modern taste, yet it is right to give this work a foremost place in the architectural development of London. It is a curious instance of the irony of human life that the Prince Regent's proposed residence in the park was never built, that financial considerations caused the demolition of Carlton House, and that the fine colonnade that Nash built along Regent Street to shelter the exquisites of the day has been swept away by an unsympathetic posterity.

8. *The Works of the Democratic Councils.*—If London in the eighteenth century were dominated by the aristocrats, the London of the nineteenth century passed from under their sway, and gradually became more and more democratic in its government and in its ideals.

One reason for this change was the development of free political institutions all over the country; another was the growth of the more purely commercial instinct; and perhaps a third reason is to be found in the extraordinarily rapid growth of the population. The ancient cities of London and Westminster were no more than islands in a great sea. North, south, east, and west the city spread in all-devouring fashion. Railways and tramways were introduced and helped in this development. Some form of common government became necessary for the whole agglomeration. Government commissioners, who were first appointed, were found unequal to the need, and they were succeeded by an indirectly elected council which governed London for many years, but which was in turn supplanted by a council elected directly by the people. Even this government was held to be insufficient for the occasion, and its energies have recently been aided by the creation of numerous subordinate cities and boroughs who have each their own mayor, aldermen, and councillors, and who are each entrusted with a considerable amount of local autonomy. The work of these nineteenth century councils in the further development of the planning of London is set forth very clearly by Mr. Percy Edwards in his *History of London Street Improvements*. Mr. Edwards tells us how, during the century, new lines of traffic have been opened and streets widened in all directions. The most notable of these improvements have been (a) The embanking of the Thames, and (b) The junction of Holborn with the Strand.

The Thames Embankment had long been a public ideal. It was unfitting that a city of the magnitude of London should be intersected by acres of offensive mud-banks, and between the years 1865 and 1875 three-and-a-half miles of these mud-banks were embanked by a road, generally 100 feet wide, at a cost of nearly 12½ millions of dollars. Between this road and the city beautiful gardens have been laid out, and the crowds that throng this thoroughfare on fine summer evenings, and listen to the municipal bands playing in the municipal gardens, form some evidence of the way in which this great work is appreciated by the people of London.

The junction of Holborn with the Strand is now in progress. It is an improvement of the highest architectural importance, and will profoundly affect the future of the city. On referring to the map of London, the observer cannot but be struck with the insufficiency of through lines of communication from north to south. The ancient Edgware Road forms one such thoroughfare, Regent Street another, but between Regent Street and the Great North Road of the Romans, now represented by the Kingsland Road, there is no really adequate north and south thoroughfare. It will be seen, however, that the means of making such a thoroughfare exist. On the north there is the line of streets beginning at Southampton Row, and continuing to Hampstead, while on the south Waterloo Road is the first link of a chain of streets running to the far south. The essential object is to connect these two detached lines of traffic, and this will be effected by the avenue now in course of construction. Many plans for this avenue were laid before the London County Council, and it is pleasant to be able to record the fact that the scheme which met with universal approval and consequent adoption was based upon that submitted by the Royal Institute of British Architects. The new street* will be 100 feet wide, or 10 feet wider than Regent Street. At its southern end it bifurcates into the form of a crescent.* The arms of the crescent are each 100 feet wide, and the Strand, which forms its base, has been widened to an even greater width, thus preserving for all time the two fine Renaissance churches occupying the centre of the Strand. The motives of the Institute in making this plan were manifold. They perceived the architectural objections to making the side view of St. Mary's church steeple the objective of the street vista, as was at one time proposed, and they desired to afford the opportunity for the creation of a new architectural

* This new street will be known by the name of "Kingsway," and the crescent by the name of "Aldwych."

objective worthy of the unique occasion. This can be provided on the island site axial with the new street. They also foresaw that the traffic from north to south, crossing the vast traffic from east to west along the Strand, would constitute a serious problem. The new street is, therefore, designed to enable the northern traffic to ascend by the western arm of the crescent, while the southern traffic descends by the eastern arm. They foresaw that if some such scheme as this were not carried through a most serious attack would be likely to develop against Waterloo Bridge, owing to its inadequate width. This bridge is not only the most beautiful of London bridges, but its position in the centre of the great arc of the river with the background of Somerset House and the dome of St. Paul's, constitutes perhaps one of the finest architectural views in the world. Unfortunately, Waterloo Bridge was designed for a bygone generation, and is much too narrow to carry the traffic of the main line of communication between North and South London. The solution of this difficulty is thought by the Institute to lie in the construction of a new bridge across the Thames, between the Waterloo and the Blackfriars bridges.

9. *Future London*.—It would not seem that any very useful purpose would be served by indicating the lines upon which future London will develop. It must be largely a matter of conjecture, and though certain improvements are clearly only a matter of time, notably, perhaps, the continuation of the Mall into Trafalgar Square and the consequent widening of Whitehall, yet it is probable that the process in the future will be, as in the past, the outcome of immediate necessity. London still owns very many square miles of dreary squalor and misery, and the conversion of this great area into a beautiful city is indeed a Herculean task. Probably many centuries will have passed away before the poverty of London becomes only a matter of history. Still, it is remarkable what rapid strides in the obliteration of the slums are being made. During the last fifty years, whole districts of insanitary property have been swept out of existence and have been replaced by new and healthy dwellings designed with care and thought. There is a public school every few hundred yards, and public baths, gymnasia, libraries, museums, and art galleries are to be found in even the poorest districts. The younger generations are far better equipped than were their fathers to take up the question of civic organisation and to carry forward the movement for better and brighter homes.

Whether London has reached the limit of her population. Whether this extraordinary city is destined still to enlarge her boundaries. Whether the growth in power and influence of the great Western world is destined to divert commercial energy into new channels. These are questions too great for us. It may be that London will be forced to yield her place as the foremost city of the world to her younger and possibly more energetic competitor New York City. If this be the destiny of fate, I am sure that there is no city to whom London would more willingly yield the pre-eminence, and rejoice in so doing. At the same time it is necessary to state that London possesses vast stores of latent power, that her unrivalled geographical position still remains unchanged, and that, at the beginning of this twentieth century of her history, she is sufficiently confident of her commercial future to embark on schemes of commercial development which will involve an expenditure of hundreds of millions of dollars. Whatever may be the fate that the future has in store for London, however, the past will always remain her own, and I shall be content if this too brief and disconnected sketch succeed in awakening in the mind of the young American citizen some interest, if not some affection, for a city that is after all his *alma mater*.

